DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 214 449 HE 014 901

AUTHOR	Wilcox, Lee, Ed.
TITLE	The Admission and Placement of Students from Latin America: A Workshop Report. Brazil, Central America, (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama), Colombia, Venezuela.
INSTITUTION	National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of State, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	May 69
NOTE	105p.; NAFSA Workshop on the Admission and Placement of Students from Latin America at the University of Puerto Rico (San Juan, December 9-20, 1968). Additional sponsors included the Council for Latin America and the Creole Foundation.
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	College Admission; *College Students; *Comparative Education; Educational Quality; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); *Foreign Countries; *Foreign Students; Higher Education; Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS	Brazil; *Central America; Colombia; *South America; Venezuela

ABSTRACT

Information about the educational systems of Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama that may be helpful to the U.S. college admission officers is presented. Background information about the countries and the current primary, secondary, and postsecondary educational systems are considered. For Brazil, information is presented about quality factors and curricula, and a list of universities and a glossary of educational terms are included. For Venezuela, information is also presented on the grading system, quality factors, and the North American Association of Venezuela. For Columbia, attention is directed to the academic bachillerato program, technical secondary education, commercial and agricultural schools and other offerings. Some common characteristics of the Central American countries are described. The percentage who attend secondary school in Central America varies from as low as 4 percent to as high as 15 percent. All Central American state universities are autonomous; however, the tradition of autonomy is not firmly established in all countries. All of these Central American countries are bringing into their curricula the concept of general education, or general studies, but the concept of general studies is meeting with varied reactions from students as well as faculties. The English requirement in Central American, Brazilian, Colombian, and Venezuelan schools is addressed. Recommendations and a bibliography are also presented for the Central American countries as a whole and for Brazil, Colombia, and Venezuela. (SW)

ED214449

THE ADMISSION AND PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS FROM LATIN AMERICA

A WORKSHOP REPORT

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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National Association for Foreign Student Affairs
1860 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009

HE 014 901

Edited by

Lee Wilcox

University of Wisconsin

May, 1969

MEMORIAL

This report is dedicated to the memory of Mrs. Gloria D. Keating who served as foreign student admissions officer at the University of New Mexico and who was a participant at the Workshop. Mrs. Keating was stricken ill and died December 21, 1968, in San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Those of us at the Workshop came to know Mrs. Keating as a dedicated professional in the field of international education and as a warm and sincere person. The respect she earned from her many friends at the Workshop is a tribute to both aspects of her life. Her friends and colleagues in Albuquerque and the Workshop participants have established an emergency loan fund for foreign students in her name at the University of New Mexico.

PREFACE

The NAFSA Workshop on the Admission and Placement of Students from Latin America was held at the University of Puerto Rice from December 9-20, 1968. It was the third in what is hoped to be a series of in-depth admissions workshops which focus on a particular area of the world (the two previous workshops covered Asian countries and were held at the East-West Center, University of Hawaii). The basic purpose of these workshops is to bring together a group of experienced foreign student admissions officers and resource persons with particular expertise in the countries involved in order to study the foreign educational systems which supply large numbers of students to U.S. colleges and universities. The findings and recommendations are then shared with the admissions community through followup workshops and a report.

NAFSA is indebted to a number of organizations for their financial support of the Workshop. The expenses for the Workshop participants and for this report were financed by grants from the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, Department of State, The Ford Foundation, The Council for Latin America, Inc., and The Creole Foundation. The College Entrance Examination Board provided travel grants to two of the resource persons, Stirling Huntley and Robert Schuiteman, for travel in Central America and Colombia, respectively, and for the Workshop. A grant from the Creole Foundation supported Sanford Jameson's travel to Venezuela and the Workshop and also supported Professor Roger Nava as a counterpart resource person for Venezuela at the Workshop. The Instituto Colombiano de Especializacion Tecnica en el Exterior (ICETEX) financed Mr. Gonzalo Arboleda, counterpart resource person for Colombia. The U.S. Office of Education provided support for William Harrell, resource person for Brazil. This generous support from both Latin American and U.S. sources is gratefully acknowledged.

Lee Wilcox

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OVERVIEW

The general format of the Workshop provided approximately two days for discussion of each of the four areas--Brazil, Central America, Colombia, and Venezuela. A U.S. resource person and, in the case of Colombia and Venezuela, a Latin American resource person provided descriptive and qualitative information about the particular educational system. These presentations were followed by a series of case studies and the formulation by Workshop participants of recommendations for admission and placement decisions. These recommendations and the presentations upon which they are based make up this report.

There were a number of general recommendations which grew out of Workshop discussions that were not unique to a particular country. While some of these recommendations are not new and are not necessarily limited to students from Latin America, they received support from the participants and are presented below.

A. Application materials

1. Applications used by institutions represented at the Workshop varied considerably in their usefulness in dealing with applicants from other countries. Our review of individual cases highlighted the fact that the amount and relevance of information about a foreign student can be enhanced by special application forms. It is therefore recommended that, whenever possible, a separate application form be developed for use with foreign applicants. If the number of foreign applicants does not justify a special application form, a supplemental form to the regular application should be devised.

2. Of particular importance in dealing with a foreign applicant is the assessment of the student's educational objective. A simple question calling for the student's proposed major is inadequate to fully determine whether the student's purposes can be met at our institution. It is

therefore recommended that a detailed description of the student's educational objectives be solicited as a part of the normal application process and that the appropriateness of our course offerings and the student's qualifications be carefully considered.

3. It is often difficult to reconstruct a student's educational history from the confusing array of credentials presented. Apparent gaps in school enrollment, conflicts or overlap in dates of attendance, and similar interpretation problems can be better understood through the use of a special form calling for a year by year chronology of schools attended. Several institutions represented at the Workshop have used such a form to advantage and it is recommended that institutions supplement their usual application with a similar form.

4. While letters of recommendation for foreign applicants are sometimes viewed with skepticism and sometimes not requested at all, it was the view of the Workshop participants that letters of recommendation can be useful under certain conditions. It is urged that admissions officers consider recommendations as an integral part of an application but that the following guidelines be observed:

   a. Provide a separate form for the recommendations.

   b. Ask specific questions worded carefully enough to elicit the information being sought.

   c. Seek rank in class information and provide several examples of the kind of statements you desire.

   d. Ask the person preparing the recommendation to state his position, educational background, basis for knowledge of the applicant, and length of acquaintance with the applicant.

   e. Require that the recommender send the form directly to the institution.

B. Grading

1. Grading in Latin America presents the admissions officer with a particularly difficult assessment problem. Secondary school grades are viewed by many Latin American universities as highly subjective and may be given little weight in determining admission to higher education. Moreover, at both secondary and higher levels there are wide differences in grading practices, both across institutions and within institutions. While some of the country recommendations which follow suggest grade conversions or interpretations, considerable caution and flexibility need to be exercised in making use of them. Supplemental information from tests, recommendations, interviewing services, and other sources should be sought whenever possible.

2. It was noted in the Workshop that grades throughout the entire range of passing grades tend to be given, particularly at the secondary level. It was also noted that consistency of performance lends some reliability to our inference of the quality of the student's performance. Thus the cautions indicated above can be tempered somewhat when dealing with applicants with consistent grade records at the upper end of the grade range.

C. Institution quality

There is tremendous variation in the quality of educational institutions in Latin America. Some institutions compare favorably with high quality universities in the U.S., but many others would probably not meet minimum accreditation standards. While it is difficult, if not impossible, to rate universities in Latin America, factors such as degree of selectivity, proportion of full-time faculty, and urban location can provide quality clues to admissions officers. As is true in the U.S., there is considerable overlap in quality between public and private institutions and very good faculties can be found in otherwise mediocre institutions. When available, prior experience with

students from a particular school provides the best criterion for evaluating the probability of success of subsequent students.

D. Tests

The use of U.S. prepared aptitude and achievement tests can be helpful with Latin American applicants but must be interpreted with great care. Obviously, evidence of satisfactory English proficiency is a prerequisite to the use of such tests. Even then, some language handicap is bound to operate as well as an unknown amount of cultural bias. Low scores are therefore ambiguous, especially on verbal sections of such tests. Scores on mathematics sections and on achievement tests in mathematics and science areas are less influenced by language and cultural differences and have been used to advantage by several institutions. High scores are relatively unambiguous and can be an important confirmation of the student's background and ability.

E. English proficiency

In each country studied it was observed that the quality of English instruction in school is low (this may be true even in American high schools in Latin America). Neither evidence of several years of course work in English nor school grades earned in English should be used as an indication of English proficiency. TOEFL or other standardized tests of English as a foreign language should be required of all Latin American applicants whose native language is not English.

F. Level of study

A trend for Latin American country educators to encourage students to receive undergraduate training at home was noted in several countries. Facilities for higher education are improving, both quantitatively and qualitatively. This factor, in addition to the difficulty of having U.S. undergraduate degrees recognized in some areas, the relative lack of graduate programs in Latin America and the financial aid available for advanced study, seems to

argue for a greater emphasis on accepting graduate students.

G. Junior colleges

The Workshop participants strongly recommended that junior/community colleges, and senior colleges with lower division occupational curricula, exercise selective admissions policies for students admitted for one or two-year occupational programs, as well as for regular transfer curricula.

A student admitted to the college should have a specific goal for which the college can provide training, and he should be qualified to pursue that goal without remedial courses, except such English training as the college is able and willing to provide.

H. Selectivity

There is a severe attrition rate in school enrollment in all of the countries covered in the Workshop. Using the number of students beginning elementary school as a base, the proportion finishing secondary school is typically less than 5% and the proportion completed a university degree is typically less than 1%. This attrition should not, however, be interpreted as primarily a function of academic selection. Principal factors include geography (lack of schools in rural areas), sex (girls do not receive equal encouragement toward education), and economics (many students must leave school to work). Actually, the greatest attrition in the total system occurs by the first year of elementary school. While selection on academic grounds does occur in the system, the range of academic talent represented at any particular level in the system is probably not too dissimilar from that in the U.S.

I. Finances

Although a student's financial capabilities need to be considered in the admissions process, lack of money alone should not be a sufficient cause to reject an applicant. Scholarships or loans are available within several of the countries discussed at the Workshop to students who can provide evidence of

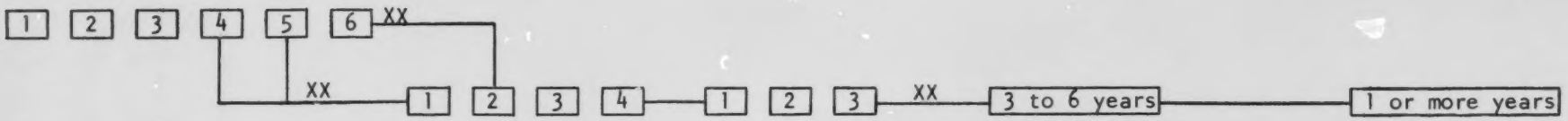
admission to a U.S. university. It is therefore recommended that a student who is otherwise qualified for admission be notified of his admissibility but that an I-20 form not be released until adequate financial support is assured.

Lee Wilcox

THE BRAZILIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, 1969

Ensino primario Elementary education	Ensino médio Secondary level education (Middle-level education)	Ensino superior Higher education

Primeiro ciclo (ginasial) First cycle	Segundo ciclo (Colegial) Second cycle	Curso de graduacão	Curso de Pós-graduacao



1. XX indicates that an examination is necessary to pass to the next level.
2. Students completing the fourth or fifth year of the elementary level are eligible for the admission examination for the secondary level. Students completing the sixth year may seek admission to the second year of the secondary level. Most students enter the secondary level directly from the fourth year of the elementary level, and only a very small number enter the sixth year or seek admission to the secondary level from the sixth year.
3. The term, "middle-level", is sometimes used in English to avoid confusion with the secundário which is the general or academic secondary program on that level.
4. The secondary level offers a general secondary program, a normal or teacher-training program, and technical programs in commercial, industrial and agricultural subjects.
5. A few normal and industrial programs have a fourth year in the second cycle.
6. Graduates of any second-cycle program are eligible to take the entrance examination for schools of higher education.
7. Graduate education is still in a formative stage and it is still possible for doctorates to be awarded after an examination and the defense of a thesis with no classroom work.

BRAZIL

by William Harrell

I. BACKGROUND

The Laws of Directives and Bases (Lei de Diretrizes e Bases), which was introduced in the Brazilian Congress in 1948 and finally passed in December of 1961, implemented the educational provisions of the Constitution of 1946 by adding dimensions of flexibility and administrative decentralization to Brazilian education. In effect the Law of 1961 provides for two systems of education, federal and State, but does not exclude the possibility of municipal systems. All systems include both publicly and privately operated schools. The federal system includes all schools in the federal territories and all schools operated by the federal government. Private middle-level[1] (ensino médio) schools which were under federal orientation before 1962 and elected to continue in the federal system are part of the system. All privately operated schools of higher education (ensino superior) offering programs which lead to the practice of a profession are also in the federal system. State operated schools of higher education in States which have not operated universities for at least five years are under federal orientation.

The State system includes non-federal elementary (ensino primária) schools within its borders, all State operated middle-level schools, private middle-level schools operated before 1962 which elected to accept State orientation, and all private schools at this level established since 1961. States which have operated universities for more than five years have jurisdiction over State operated schools of higher education within their borders.

The Federal Council of Education is the policy making body for the federal system and the Ministry for Education and Culture is the administrative agency.

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1 The term, "middle-level", refers to the secondary level of Brazilian education. It is so used to avoid confusion with the "secundária" which is one program in the middle level.

State councils of education are responsible for policy considerations in State systems and State secretariats of education perform the administrative functions.

At the end of the Vargas regime in 1945, higher education in Brazil was highly centralized with the Ministry of Education being responsible for the orientation and inspection of all schools. The Ministry was also responsible for the orientation of all middle-level institutions except the normal schools which received general guidelines from the Federal government but were under State supervision. Elementary schools were the responsibility of the State and municipal governments. Private schools operated on all levels with strict regulations from governmental agencies on the higher and middle level but with less direction on the elementary level. Private schools enrolled a small minority of students on the higher and elementary levels but had a large majority of the students on the middle level.

The elementary schools' programs were generally of four-years duration but there were three-year programs for rural schools in several states. Usually urban schools offered the full four-year program but rural schools often offered only one or two years of instruction. Some urban schools included a fifth year designed especially to prepare the students for the middle-level admission examination. The attrition rate of elementary school students was and continues to be high with about 60% of those who begin school not entering the second grade and about 15% completing the fourth year. Middle-level instruction was divided into two cycles, the first of four years and the second of three years duration. Admission to the first cycle required that the student be eleven years of age and pass an admission examination. The middle-level programs were divided into three general categories; (1) the general or academic secondary (secundária) program designed primarily for preparation of students seeking admission to a school of higher education; (2) the normal (normal) programs which prepared teachers for the elementary schools; and (3) the technical (técnico) programs which offered specialized instruction in several fields. The general secondary programs included emphasis on either scientific

or classical studies, and the technical programs offered specialization in commercial, industrial, or agricultural subjects. A large majority of the first-cycle students were enrolled in the general secondary program but the percentage in this program in the second cycle was less as students entered the normal and commercial technical programs. Agricultural and industrial schools accounted for very small percentages of the total middle-level enrollment.

Completion of the general secondary program qualified the student to seek admission to any program of higher education and completion of other middle-level programs were directed toward only certain higher level schools. After 1954, however, through the mechanism of adaptation examinations, it was possible for graduates of any middle-level school to seek admission to any school of higher education.

Programs of higher education were offered in faculties (faculdades) or schools (escolas) which were either components of universities or independent entities. All programs were regulated by the Ministry of Education which maintained inspectors assigned to accompany the activities of the institutions. The programs of study were designed to prepare the student for the practice of a profession and a duly registered diploma was essentially the license to practice a profession. Duration of programs was from 3 to 6 years depending on the course of study followed.

Curricula for middle and higher level schools were determined by centralized agencies under the Ministry of Education. Rigidity and uniformity were marked characteristics for studies on both levels and programs of study for each subject were organized for presentation by the teachers. All students in the same class followed the same curriculum and the same class schedule. Grading systems and examinations procedures were uniform throughout the nation. The passing grade was 4 (on a 1-10 scale) for each subject with an overall average of 5 being necessary for promotion to the next year. If the student failed no more than two subjects re-examination was possible.

II. CURRENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The general structure of Brazilian education continues as it was before the Law of Directives and Bases began to be implemented early in 1962. The elementary level is still basically a four-year program, however, there are provisions for a six-year plan which allows the student to enter the second year of the middle level.

The middle level is divided into two cycles, the first (ginasial) of four years and the second (colegial) of three years although it is possible to offer a four-year second cycle for the technical and teacher-training programs. Admission to the middle level requires the successful completion of the elementary school program and usually the passing of an admission examination. Higher education programs vary in length usually from three to six years with a provision for the courses of study to be structured on the basis of class hours thus lengthening or shortening the duration of the programs according to the plan of the individual institution. As of early 1969, university programs and structure are in a state of flux with present regulations requiring that certain subjects be taught in central institutes of the university. Admission to a program of study on the higher level requires the successful completion of a middle-level program and the passing of an entrance examination which is frequently highly competitive.

Institutional administrative organization is not uniform at any level. Elementary school programs may be offered in isolated one-room schools (which included about 26% of all elementary-level students in 1966), in schools which offer all four years of the elementary programs, in schools which also offer the middle-level programs, and in demonstration classes attached to faculties of philosophy at the higher level.

The middle-level programs may be offered in schools which include only the first cycle or in schools that also provide one or more second-cycle programs. The second-cycle programs, especially the technical courses of study, may be the only program offered by some institutions.

Higher education programs are offered in institutions with a variety of administrative structures. The minimum programs of study presented by the Federal Council of Education do not require a specific administrative arrangement. The usual structure is for the program to be offered in a faculty (faculdade) which may or may not be a component of a university. The University of Brasilia does not follow this pattern but has a division of programs (cursos) similar to the departments in a U.S. college or university.

Graduate studies (cursos pós-graduados) are still in the developmental stage but there are several universities offering masters (mestre) level studies and there are plans for doctoral programs. These graduate studies are quite similar to the U.S. pattern.

III. SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS

The former rigidity of curriculum which existed on the middle and higher levels has been reduced by the Law of Directives and Bases.

Minimum curricula with supplemental subjects for the middle level are provided by the Federal Council and the State councils, but each individual school has some options in the final structure of its program of study. Some states have provided uniform general secondary first-cycle programs for schools under their jurisdiction and no other types (technical or normal) are allowed for the first cycle. Second-cycle programs are more specialized, but the number of required subjects is reduced and the third year of the general secondary program offers options according to the university course of study which the student intends to follow.

The required subjects for the general secondary program and years of study for each are:

SUBJECT	YEARS
Portuguese language	7
History	6
Geography	5
Mathematics	6
Science*	6

*(2 years introductory, 4 years of physical and biological science)

Complementary subjects are presented in the curriculum as pairs, with four hypotheses from which the individual school might choose:

First cycle

1. Drawing and Brazilian social and political organization.
2. Drawing and a modern foreign language.
3. A classical language and a modern foreign language.
4. Two modern foreign languages.

Second cycle

1. Mathematics and sciences.
2. Drawing and a modern foreign language.
3. Classical language and a modern foreign language.

The optional subjects provided are:

First cycle	Second cycle
Modern foreign languages	Modern foreign languages
Music	Greek
Industrial arts	Minerology and geology
Commercial techniques	Social studies
Agricultural techniques	Psychology, logic, literature, introduction to the arts, law; introduction to: economics, accounting, library science, baby care, health, and dietics

The Federal Council of Education has the responsibility of organizing the minimum curriculum requirements and duration for programs of higher education leading to the practice of a profession. The minimum curricula consist only of lists of subjects without direction as to sequence and order. Schools may add other subjects. Graduate studies are the responsibility of the school. On both the middle and higher levels the teachers, conferring with the administration of the school, organize the presentation of material for each subject.

As a result of the present flexibility one should not expect to find strict uniformity of programs of study although the minimum curriculum approach does allow for some degree of similarity of programs from one school to another. One may expect to find that transcripts from the same school will have a high degree

of uniformity. Students in the same class on the middle and higher levels still follow the same class schedule.

IV. QUALITY FACTORS

The fact that deficiencies exist in the Brazilian educational system is well known to Brazilian educators and North Americans who are familiar with the system. The indication of such deficiencies should not be interpreted as adverse criticism but as a recognition that Brazil has not yet achieved the desired objectives in the field of education. Instead of asking why Brazil has not achieved the educational goals the question could be, "Considering the shortage of human and material resources, how has Brazil done so well in the field of education?" However, deficiencies affect the quality of education and U.S. admission officers must consider as far as possible the quality of Brazilian education.

To present a qualitative evaluation of Brazilian middle and higher level institutions would require several man years of research and several volumes for the report. In 1967 there were 11,552 first and second cycle middle-level programs of study and 1,304 higher education programs offered. A breakdown of the number of institutions offering middle-level programs is not available but 7,000 to 8,000 would be a reasonable estimate. In 1968 there were 44 universities and more than 300 independent faculties offering programs of higher education. These rough statistics indicate the scope of the problem which an institution by institution evaluation would present.

Such problems as overcrowding of classes, lack of trained teachers, part-time teaching and part-time students, and deficient laboratories as well as deficient or non-existent libraries are the result of insufficient human and material resources available to meet the demand for middle-level education. The middle-level enrollment increased from less than 1,400,000 in 1961 to above 2,800,000 in 1967. The quality of the schools provided for these students ranges from well-staffed, well-administered, and well-equipped institutions, both public and private, to

schools which operate with make-do teachers, no teaching materials, and in former residences poorly adapted for the school uses. Since all official institutions have the same type documents, transcripts do not offer guidance as to the quality of the institution from which the student came.

Schools of higher education confront some of the same problems as middle-level institutions and the range of quality of instruction is almost as great, however, there are movements which are improving the schools of the university level. The reform of the federal universities has been in the direction of more full-time teachers and better buildings and equipment. The central institute structure has allowed economies of human and material resources and the initiation of graduate level programs will result in better prepared teachers. Generally speaking the quality of instruction in faculties which are components of universities, especially the federal and state universities, is of higher quality than that offered in the independent faculties, but there are outstanding exceptions.

V. GLOSSARY OF EDUCATIONAL TERMS

Bacharel: One who holds the bacharelado.

Bacharelado: The degree awarded after four years of study (before 1962 three) in a Faculty of Philosophy and Letters, or five years of study in a Faculty of Law.

Catedrático: A full professor rank at present (early 1969) undergoing modification and possible abolishment. The rank is attained after rather rigorous competitive examinations.

Certificado de conclusão de curso: (ginasial) (colegial) The certificate awarded to students who successfully complete the first or second cycle of the general secondary program.

Colégio: The common term designating an institution offering the three-year second cycle of the secondary level. Such institution may offer one or more such programs and may include first cycle and elementary programs.

Colégio universitário: A program of study operated as part of a university covering the last year of the general secondary program. This year of study, whether offered by a university or a secondary level school is specialized, the student selecting the studies which are related to his university career goals.

Concurse de habilitacão: The entrance examination required for admission to a school of higher education.

Congregacão: The teachers with professorial rank.

Corpo docente: The faculty (teachers).

Cursinho: An unofficial, frequently condemned and widely used, program designed as "cram" preparation for the entrance examination.

Curso: A program of study.

Curso colegial: The second-cycle program of the secondary level, usually referring to the general secondary program.

Curso de admissao: A program of study designed especially to prepare the student for the secondary level admission examination. Usually an unofficial fifth year added to a four-year elementary school program.

Curso de graduacão: An undergraduate level program.

Curso de pós-graduacão: A graduate level program.

Curso ginasial: The first-cycle program of the secondary level covering four years of study.

Curso normal: The program of study, usually of three years duration, but in some cases may be four years, for the training of elementary school teachers.

Curso primário: The elementary school program.

Curso secundário: The general secondary program of the secondary level designed to prepare students for higher education studies.

Diretor: The administrative head of a school (faculdade) of higher education.

Docente livre: A faculty rank frequently awarded to candidates for the catedratico who attained passing grades on the examinations but did not win first place in the competition.

Doutor: One who holds a doctors degree, Doctor. Also a title of address for almost anyone who has a diploma from a school of higher education.

Doutorado: A doctors degree.

Ensino médio: Secondary level or middle-level education covering seven and in a few cases eight years of study.

Ensino primário: Elementary education.

Ensino superior: Higher education.

Escola: When referring to an institution of higher education is the same as a faculdade.

Escola normal: An institution offering principally the secondary level second cycle program for the training of elementary school teachers.

Escola técnica: An institution offering a secondary level technical program.

Exame de admissão: The secondary level admission examination which may be taken with or without the fifth year of the elementary school.

Exame de suficiência: A rarely used but possible mechanism whereby a student may take an examination covering the subject matter of the first or second cycles of the general secondary program and may receive the certificate of conclusion of the program.

Exame vestubilário: The entrance examination required for admission to a school of higher education.

Faculdade: A school of higher education.

Ginásio: An institution offering the first cycle of the secondary level, usually referring to the general secondary program.

Ginásio comercial: An institution offering the first-cycle commercial program of the secondary level.

Ginásio industrial: An institution offering the first-cycle industrial program of the secondary level.

Grupo escolar: An elementary school offering at least a four-year program with each grade in a separate classroom.

Instituto: A component of a university which has a special function.

Licenciatura: A degree awarded after four years of study, including some professional education subject, in a Faculty of Philosophy and Letters. The bacharelado and the licenciatura are considered to be on the same level. This degree qualifies to holder to teach in secondary level schools.

Mestrado: A masters degree.

Mestre: One who holds a masters degree.

Primeiro ano, segundo ano, terceiro ano, quarto ano, quinto ano: First grade or year, second grade, etc.

Professor, Professora (fem.): The title of address of teachers on all levels preferred above the title of "doutor".

Reitor: The administrative head of a university.

Universidade: A university. An institution with more than one, usually more than three, schools of higher education. Universities may also be organized according to programs (cursos).

2º (segunda) epoca: A reexamination.

VI. UNIVERSITIES IN BRAZIL[1]

Federal Universities

Federal University of Alagôas (Universidade Federal de Alagôas)
Maceió, Alagôas

Federal University of Amazonas (Universidade Federal de Amazonas)
Manaus, Amazonas

Federal University of Bahia (Universidade Federal de Bahia)
Salvador, Bahia

Federal University of Ceará (Universidade Federal do Ceará)
Fortaleza, Ceará

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Rio de Janeiro, Guanabara

Federal University of Juiz de Fora (Universidade Federal de Juiz de Fora)
Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais

Federal University of Minas Gerais (Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais)
Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais

Federal University of Pará (Universidade Federal de Pará)
Belem, Pará

Federal University of Paraíba (Universidade Federal de Paraíba)
João Pessôa, Paraíba

Federal University of Paraná (Universidade Federal de Paraná)
Curitiba, Paraná

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1 This list was provided by the Education Division of the Pan American Union and includes the existing schools as of late 1968. Besides the schools listed, the compilation also includes more than 300 independent faculties and other schools of higher education.

It should be noted that the universities mentioned are composed of faculties, schools, institutes, and other organizational entities. The administration of the universities is to a greater or lesser degree decentralized in the various components and educational credentials are usually issued by the unit and not by the university.

Federal University of Pernambuco (Universidade Federal de Pernambuco)
Recife, Pernambuco

Federal Rural University of Pernambuco (Universidade Federal Rural de Pernambuco)
Recife, Pernambuco

Fluminense Federal University (Universidade Federal Fluminense)
Niterói, Rio de Janeiro

Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro (Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro)
Rio de Janeiro, Guanabara

Federal University of Rio Grande do Norte (Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte)
Natal, Rio Grande do Norte

Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul (Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul)
Pôrto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul

Federal University of Santa Maria (Universidade Federal de Santa Maria)
Santa Maria, Rio Grande do Sul

Federal Rural University of Rio Grande do Sul (Universidade Federal Rural do Rio Grande do Sul)
Pelotas, Rio Grande do Sul

Federal University of Santa Catarina (Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina)
Florianopolis, Santa Catarina

Federal University of Sergipe (Universidade Federal de Sergipe)
Aracujá, Sergipe

State Universities

University of the State of Guanabara (Universidade do Estado de Guanabara)
Rio de Janeiro, Guanabara

University of Itaúna (Universidade de Itaúna)
Itaúna, Minas Gerais

Rural University of the State of Minas Gerais (Universidade Rural do Estado de Minas Gerais)
Vicosa, Minas Gerais

University of Campinas (Universidade de Campinas)
Campinas, São Paulo

University of São Paulo (Universidade de São Paulo)
São Paulo, São Paulo

Private Universities

Catholic University of Salvador (Universidade Católica do Salvador)
Salvador, Bahia

University of Goias (Universidade de Goiás)
Goiánia, Goiás

Pontifical Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro (Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio de Janeiro)
Rio de Janeiro, Guanabara

University of Marahão (Universidade de Maranhão)
São Luis, Maranhão

Catholic University of Minas Gerais (Universidade Católica de Minas Gerais)
Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais

Catholic University of Paraná (Universidade Católica de Paraná)
Curitiba, Paraná

Catholic University of Pernambuco (Universidade Católica de Pernambuco)
Recife, Pernambuco

Catholic University of Petropólis (Universidade Católica de Petrópolis)
Petrópolis, Rio de Janeiro

Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul (Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul)
Pôrto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul

Catholic University of Pelotas (Universidade Católica de Pelotas)
Pelotas, Rio Grande do Sul

University of Caixas do Sul (Universidade Caixias do Sul)
Caixas do Sul, Rio Grande do Sul

University of Passo Fundo (Universidade de Passo Fundo)
Passo Fundo, Rio Grande do Sul

Pontifical Catholic University de São Paulo (Pontifícia Universidade Católica de São Paulo)
São Paulo, São Paulo

Catholic University of Campinas (Universidade Católica de Campinas)
Campinas, São Paulo

MacKenzie University (Universidade MacKenzie)
São Paulo, São Paulo

Municipal Universities

Municipal University of Taubaté (Universidade Municipal de Taubaté)
Taubaté, São Paulo

Other

Aeronautical Technical Institute (Institute Tecnológico de Aeronáutica)
São José dos Campos, São Paulo

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Applicants with educational experience in Brazil should be required to present complete documentation of all studies above the elementary level. Such documentation is available at the school where the studies were performed and can be obtained by the student with little difficulty.

B. Undergraduate - Freshman

1. Applicants for freshman status

a. Applicants who have successfully terminated the second cycle of the general secondary program (secondario) may be considered for freshman admission depending upon the quality of the grades received.

b. Applicants who have completed with superior grades the (second cycle) secondary level technical (tecnico) program in commercial (comercial) industrial (industrial) or agricultural (agricultura) studies, or the secondary level teacher-training program (normal) may also be considered for freshman admission but caution should be exercised in evaluating the subjects taken and the objectives of the student in the institution to which he seeks admission.

c. Other indices, such as the College Board Achievement Tests, may be useful for assessing the applicant's preparation for specialized study in the U.S., but such factors as the applicant's English proficiency and general cultural background must be considered as well as the general preparation.

d. No advanced standing based on secondary level school experience in Brazil is recommended.

C. Undergraduate applicants - Transfers

Transfer credit may be allowed for undergraduate work done in a Brazilian institution of higher education on a course by course basis depending on

the relevance of the transfer credit to the program of study for which the student is applying. However, the student should be reminded that the diploma from a Brazilian school of higher education, when duly registered, is in effect the license to practice a profession, and that the revalidation of a U.S. degree can be a difficult and complicated process. Because of this factor it is usually advisable for a Brazilian student to complete his first university degree in Brazil. If accepted for transfer to a U.S. university, the student should be clearly informed as to core course requirements which may extend the time necessary to complete work for a U.S. degree.

D. Graduate

1. Students seeking admission to graduate study in the U.S. should have successfully completed a program of higher education of at least four years' duration which is closely related to the intended graduate major and should have received the appropriate title or degree. Grades received should be of consistently high quality, especially during the last two years of higher education in Brazil.
2. Students who have completed a three-year program of study should be considered for undergraduate transfer but not for graduate admission.
3. Some Brazilian universities have initiated graduate programs leading to a Master's (Mestre) degree. These are generally patterned after U.S. graduate programs and may be considered as graduate level study for evaluation according to the policy of the U.S. institution or department to which the student is applying.

E. A possible conversion scale for relating the Brazilian grading system to the U.S. system is suggested below, however, it must be understood that a very flexible approach must be adopted in the use of this scale and a rigid interpretation would be a mistake.

8.5	-	10	= A
(7.0-7.2)	-	8.5	= B
(5.8-6.0)	-	(7.0-7.2)	= C
5	-	(5.8-6.0)	= D
4	-	5	= E
Below 4			= F

NOTE: Many Brazilian schools consider a grade below 5 as failing and a few have a 6.0 minimum passing grade.

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CENTRAL AMERICA

by Stirling Huntley

I. BACKGROUND

The report on Central America must, of necessity, differ somewhat from the other sections of this Workshop Report. In the first place, the author is dealing with six different countries, rather than with one unified system. While there are many similarities among the six countries, there are enough differences that each must be treated as a separate unit. Secondly, it was apparent at the Workshop in Puerto Rico that the Central American section suffered because of the lack of a resource person from Central America to give historical insights with regard to the development of the educational system. This is, therefore, a report compiled by one person, based on what little published information is available, plus the varied experiences of a hurried two-week visit to Central America. The information in this article should be used with discretion and carefully checked where possible against other sources of information as well.

Treated as an area, Central America has some characteristics and some problems which may be considered on a regional basis. For example, the growth rate of Central America as a unit averages about 3.4% per year. This compares with an overall growth rate for Latin America of 3.1%, and this, in itself, is among the highest in the world. In other words, in Central America there is a growth rate which is exceeded by only very few countries anywhere. At the same time, these countries have an educational system which, in many respects, lags far behind other sections of Latin America. The great educational questions facing the Central American governments is whether or not the educational system can be expanded and improved rapidly enough to keep up with the growth rate, and at the same time, to make some inroads on the problems of illiteracy and vocational training. While expanding rapidly, can the educational system also change to a more modern system meeting the great needs of the area?

There are many differences among the Central American countries, and great variation in the effectiveness of the educational programs. At the same time, there are many elements common to all six republics which provide a series of unifying themes for anyone studying the pattern of education in this section of the world.

Either by guarantee of the constitution, or by federal statute in each of these countries, primary education is free for all, and is compulsory for all up to a certain age limit. In practice the fact that primary education is free and compulsory is of more practical effect for the young student living in Tegucigalpa or Guatemala City, than it is for the young person living in the very small village or in the jungle. In the first place, there is no point in education being free, if it is unavailable, and many of the Central American countries simply do not have enough trained, or even untrained, teachers to meet the needs of the country. In addition, several of the countries have a specific stipulation that education is not compulsory unless the student lives within two or three kilometers of a school. Obviously, for large sections of Guatemala, for example, education simply does not exist for those students living in the Peten, or other vast jungle areas largely populated by Indians.

It is probably fair to say that throughout Central America, it is the pattern rather consistently for the largest dropout rate in the educational system to occur between the first and second grades. Several countries in Central America, while having compulsory education through the sixth grade or beyond, acknowledge, in practice, that this cannot be accomplished by establishing rural schools that only go through the second or the fourth grades. It is generally characteristic also of Central American primary education that there is a vast difference between urban and rural school systems. While these differences are mostly being eliminated, the fact that they do exist is evidenced by the differences in teacher training. In a number of the Central American countries teachers training for a teaching position in a rural school may enter a teacher-training institute with three to five years

less schooling than is required of a student preparing for teaching in an urban setting.

A further generalization which may be made about Central American education is that an extremely low percentage of those students in the educational system advance to the secondary level. The percentage of students in school who are in secondary education will vary from as low as 4% of the total to as high as 15%. While this is a great variation it represents, at best, a very small percentage compared with nations somewhat more advanced economically and educationally.

Throughout Central America education is under the control of a Ministry of Education with the exception of the state universities which are autonomous, and private universities which vary in their control, but are in no case subject to the direct control of the Education Ministry. Some institutions of higher education, such as the military schools or agricultural schools may be responsible to other government departments than the Ministry of Education. The fact that all Central American state universities are autonomous is to be commended. Some of the universities have been autonomous for thirty or forty years at this point, while others have received their independent status only within the last decade It should be pointed out, however, that the tradition of autonomy is not firmly established in all countries. During the course of this Workshop, the University of Panama, for example, was occupied by federal troops and was closed down since the army was unhappy with the nature of some of the students and some of the demonstrations which had originated within the university.

The system of higher education in all Central American countries and, indeed, the very economies of the countries are burdened to a varying, but to a considerable extent, by the popularity of certain traditional fields of academic study. Law and medicine would be the two primary examples. The field of economics is increasing in popularity as well. While it is undoubtedly true that there is a great need for trained doctors in Central America, it is the feeling of many persons with whom I

spoke that the size of the medical faculties and the size of the graduating classes in medicine is far below the need. At the same time the popularity of medicine as a field for the students is all out of proportion to the number who can be admitted to medical schools. At first glance this situation would seem to be analogous to that of medical schools in the United States; this is not quite true, however, since within the U.S. approximately two out of every three students who apply to medical school are admitted to some medical school each year. This is certainly not the case in Central America.

Combined with the popularity of law and medicine as professional fields, there seems to go an accompanying lack of respect for professionalism; that is, many students headed for either of these fields do so, not to spend their lives as doctors or as attorneys, but rather to achieve a social standing which is automatically granted by the degrees; and furthermore, to use the professions of law or medicine as a way of acquiring some capital so that they may become general entrepreneurs. It is possible that this desire for entrepreneurship may also account for the increasing popularity of economics as a field of study. Few are interested in becoming theoretical economists, but there is generally no offering in the field of business administration, and therefore, economics is seen as the fastest university route to business success. On the other side of the scale, there is only recently developing strength in the field of engineering, but there is yet to develop in most countries anything comparable to university training for technologists.

All of these Central American countries are bringing into their curricula the concept of general education, or general studies. This is obviously fostered by some criticism of Latin American education published during the last ten years, and also by the influence of U.S. trained faculty members. This concept of general studies is meeting with varied reactions from students as well as faculties. In Guatemala, for example, there has been strong student protest concerning the general studies concept. This protest stems from a number of factors undoubtedly,

but one is simply the feeling on the part of the students that the time spent in a general studies curriculum, or in a general studies faculty, is not time spent working for a professional degree. This is, of course, not true. The general studies concept has not lengthened the total time required for any degree, but general studies, or indeed, the concept of liberal arts training has yet to achieve any social recognition in Central America. It is the professionally trained person, rather than the educated person, who is respected. The roots of this attitude would, of course, go far back in the history of Spanish and European education, but at the present time, it is undoubtedly working to the disadvantage of the general studies programs.

Another problem in connection with the general studies concept is an administrative one. If the General Studies Faculty is perceived by deans of other faculties as assisting by teaching the basic courses while still allowing the professional faculties to maintain their previous budgets and faculty members, the concept receives great support. If on the other hand, the general studies concept is seen as threatening to some extent the sovereignty or autonomy of a professional faculty, it is in for real difficulties. In five of the six state universities, the General Studies Faculty is a separate faculty which exists only for the purpose of teaching what we would consider to be the freshman or lower division requirements. In the sixth university, the General Studies Faculty offers its own degrees in the liberal arts fields, and at the same time services the professional faculties by teaching first-year courses.

All six educational systems suffer from the necessity for part-time students, and even more from part-time faculties. The Central American universities are very self-conscious concerning this question of part-time faculty, and it is difficult to obtain accurate figures. It is clear, however, that the percentage of full-time faculty members is generally on the increase. This is particularly true in the field of science, and to a lesser extent in engineering. With no graduate schools

of stature, however, the university must, to a large extent, rely on U.S. or European trained Ph.D's or equivalents, if they are to have full-time faculties. The old pattern where a group of local attorneys taught in the Law School on a part-time basis did not require any advanced training beyond the Licenciado. Each man in town might very well have his own specialty on which he lectured once a week, or even less often. When there are full-time professional faculty members, however, each must be able to teach a broader range of subjects and must, himself, have a broader background in his discipline than would be represented by the Licenciado or Ingeniero. Not only does this present problems in terms of trained personnel, but it also presents social problems in the community, too, since the prominent professional men in the community are no longer being asked to teach in the university, and they, therefore, no longer have the social status accorded them by the title of university professor.

The enrollment figures on part-time students are even more difficult to obtain than those of part-time faculty. At one institution, however, I was told that out of 330 faculty members, 93 were full time and 237 were part time. In the case of students, the percentage of full time ran from as low as 10% to as high as 100%. The figure of 100% was in the medical faculty.

Library facilities vary considerably among the Central American universities, but in no case could they be considered by U.S. standards to be adequate. It must, of course, be recognized that with no graduate programs and with very little faculty research being conducted, there has not developed the need for gigantic research libraries such as would be found in a major U.S. university. The libraries should, therefore, most properly be compared with that of a U.S. liberal arts college. Even by this standard, no library in a Central American university can be considered adequate, and some are, for all practical purposes, absolutely non-existent.

It is obvious from this that the opportunities for students in Central America to develop skills for independent study, or to develop techniques of independent research are sorely limited. This has, of course, been true to even a worse

extent in previous years, and yet Central American students have clearly succeeded at the graduate level in the United States. These facts are merely pointed out, therefore, to alert admissions officers and through them, faculty members, that Central American students should not be expected to have the sophistication concerning library use one might expect of a student from Mexico, or from the more fully developed educational systems in South America.

During the visit of this author to universities throughout Central America the hope was constantly expressed that undergraduate students would not come to the United States, but would remain at home for their undergraduate training. The one exception to this was in Costa Rica where there are not enough university places for the number of Bachilleratos being granted each year. The very efficiency of the Costa Rican educational system has presented a most difficult problem at the university level.

While U.S. admissions officers, in general, would be sympathetic with the concept of only taking graduate students from Central America, it would be most unwise to make any such arbitrary limitation. In reference to the discussion above, it is clear that there would be a great need in Central America, for example, for trained librarians and yet there is no School of Librarianship in Central America. The nearest one is in Colombia, and that is really training library aides rather than professional librarians. There are many other such fields where there are simply no offerings available in Central America. In addition to this, however, there is a fine decision to be made as to whether or not a very capable student wishing to specialize in a field which is available in his own home country in Central America is going to benefit more from remaining home or receiving that same training in the United States. The questions of maturity, of financing, and or probable return are all well known to the U.S. admissions community. It is only possible to express the wishes of the Central American educators, and to point out some of the arguments on each side.

The English requirement in secondary schools in Central America varies from as little as one year to as much as six years. It was most surprising to the author that English is spoken only by a very few people in each of the universities. One should anticipate, therefore, that there will be considerable problems with English ability on the part of Central American students. Even those who have had a number of years of English training in secondary school may have had the English taught by teachers who, themselves, were poorly trained in English and who speak it little, if at all.

All of the state universities in Central America have a much higher degree of student participation in the government of the universities than is typical in the United States. The extreme in this regard would be found in the University of Honduras where the governing board is made up 50% of students. The conviction was expressed on several occasions that this is a most healthy situation, and that the student participation has been helpful in the revision of curriculum to make the training more relevant to the current needs of the country.

With the exception of Costa Rica, it would appear that there is a general problem in primary and secondary education throughout Central America in the nature of classroom instruction. The tradition of rote learning, or recitación e exposición has been a drawback. There is, in general, very little, if any, emphasis on thinking through a problem, but only on the feedback of factual information presented in a formal manner.

It is interesting to note that teachers of history, civics, and other social sciences in a number of the countries must be citizens of that country, or at least citizens of Central America, and in many cases, they must be graduates of the local university or of the university at which they are teaching. This, of course, is a stronger argument in favor of leaving the undergraduates in Central America since by coming to the United States for undergraduate education, they are being cut off to a large extent from a teaching career in some fields in their home country.

It is also true that many professional degrees require a licensing in the home country. Sometimes such a licensing may be obtained by a student who has completed his undergraduate education abroad, but if this is allowed, it is most always extremely difficult; and again, for a person wishing to enter a professional field in which certification or licensing is required, it may be to his distinct advantage to have completed his first degree at home.

II. COSTA RICA

Primary education in Costa Rica is six years in length, and is compulsory from the ages of 7 to 14, if a student lives within two kilometers of a school. There are three types of primary schools in Costa Rica; the first offers a six-year program, the second offers a five-year program, and the third type of primary school, in theory, offers a four-year program but in practice, it may vary anywhere from between one and four years. Approximately twenty per cent of the primary students are enrolled in the six-year schools. Between ten and fifteen per cent of the population would be in the five-year schools, and nearly seventy per cent of the total primary population is in the third type of school which, at best, gives four years of primary schooling. Even the schools which offer a one-year program may be forced to alternate sexes, allowing boys to come to school one day and girls the other. Many students, therefore, attend school only three days a week.

In general, the percentage of students in school in Costa Rica is higher than in other countries of Central America, and the difference between the urban and rural schools is rapidly disappearing.

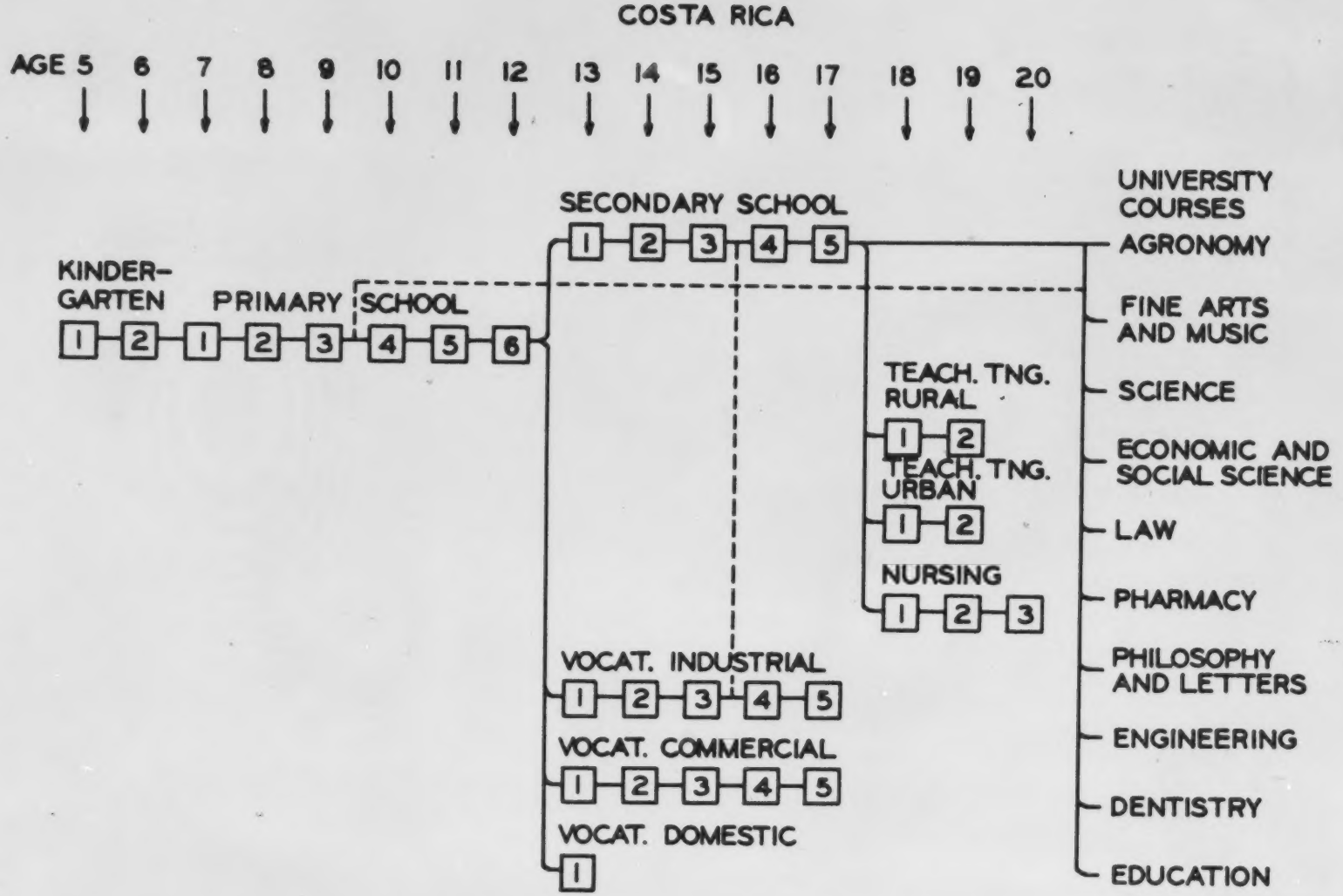
Secondary schooling in Costa Rica consists of two basic types:

1. Escuelas Complementerias.

   This is a three-year terminal vocational secondary school.

2. Liceos, Colegios, Institutos.

   These schools offer five-year programs leading to the Bachillerato en Ciencias y Letras (Bachelor in Science and Letters). This latter educational


COSTA RICA
AGE 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
KINDER-GARTEN
PRIMARY SCHOOL
1 2 1 2 3 4 5 6
SECONDARY SCHOOL
1 2 3 4 5
VOCAT. INDUSTRIAL
1 2 3 4 5
VOCAT. COMMERCIAL
1 2 3 4 5
VOCAT. DOMESTIC
1
TEACH. TNG. RURAL
1 2
TEACH. TNG. URBAN
1 2
NURSING
1 2 3
UNIVERSITY COURSES
AGRONOMY
FINE ARTS AND MUSIC
SCIENCE
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SCIENCE
LAW
PHARMACY
PHILOSOPHY AND LETTERS
ENGINEERING
DENTISTRY
EDUCATION

system has recently been divided into two cycles, the first cycle consisting of three years, and the second cycle of two years. This, hopefully, will allow a possible combination of the two types of secondary schools, so that both schools will have the common three-year program, and then a student desiring to do so may go on for the additional two years for the Bachiller.

Other Bachilleratos in addition to science and letters are also offered, but the Bachilleratos in professional fields are not recognized at the present time by the university for purposes of admission.

Higher education in Costa Rica consists of the University of Costa Rica founded in 1941 and the various faculties which it contains. Since these various faculties are numerous, and are being added to on a regular basis, they will not be listed here. Information concerning the programs offered at the University of Costa Rica and at all other state universities in Central America may be obtained through the common catalog of the Central American Universities[1]. There is also an Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences at Turrialba which includes both teaching and research, and is maintained by the Organization of American States. This institute is a graduate school requiring a university degree for admission, although some students from technical secondary schools may be admitted as special students. Usually these students come from other countries where there is no agricultural program, but they are not considered to be degree candidates. The actual degree conferred by the Institute is Magister Agriculturae, which requires one year plus the writing of a thesis.

Two additional institutions of higher education in Costa Rica are the Instituto De Centroamerica Administration Publica which was formerly called the Escuela Superior de Administration Publica de America Central. This institution is under

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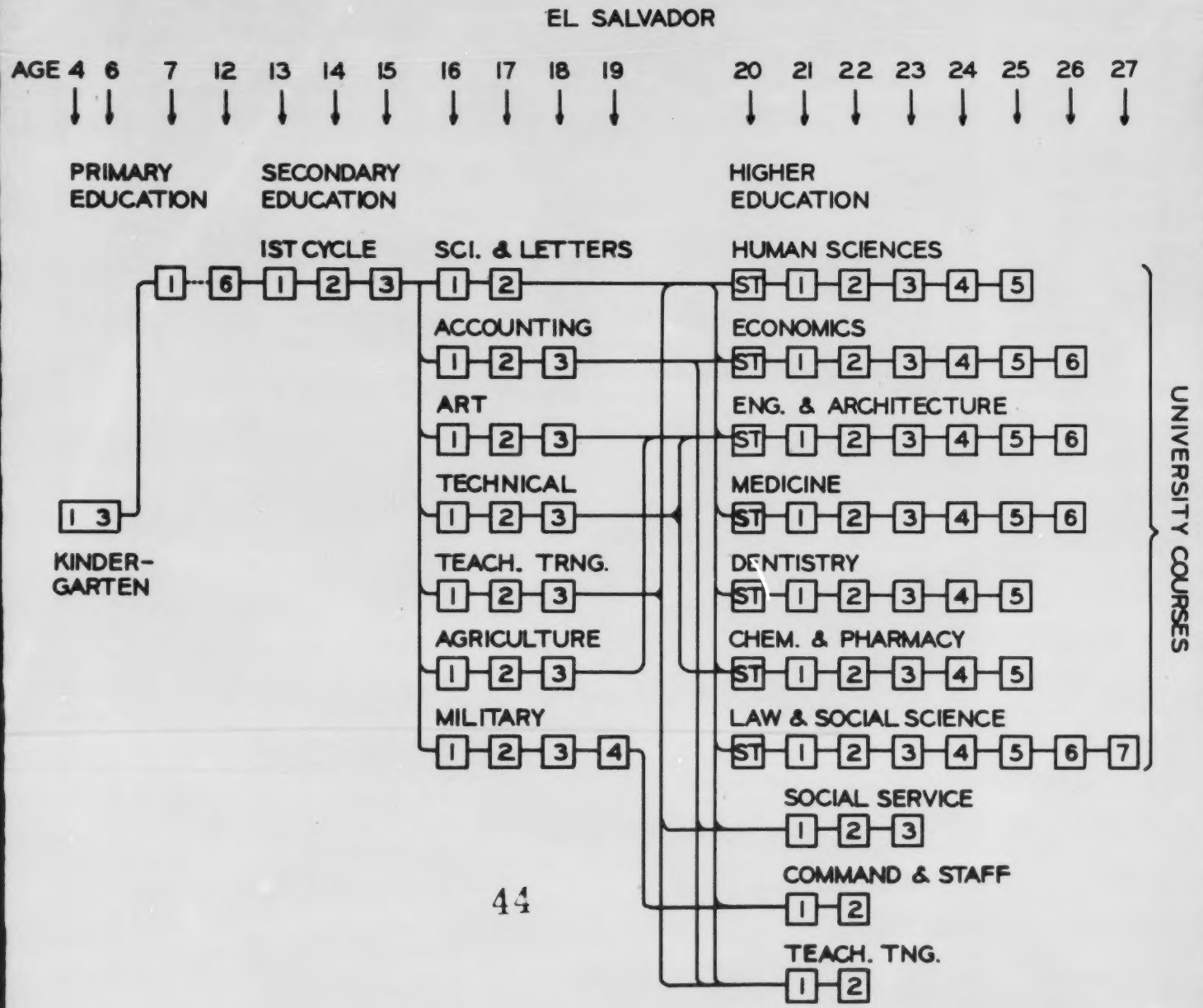
1 Catalogo de Estudios de las Universidades Nacionales de Centroamerica 1967-68. San Jose, Costa Rica: Consejo Superior Universitario Centroamericano, 1967.

U.N. Sponsorship plus the sponsorship of other Central American countries, and offers short certificate courses in public administration. There is, finally, a National School of Nursing which offers a three-year program in nursing following the secondary school Bachillerato.

Primary school teachers in Costa Rica are often trained by a training college. The full course covers the five years of secondary schooling and two years of higher education. Teachers may have various titles of Maestro Normal, Maestro Superior, or Maestro Elemental. In addition, there may be temporary teachers hired in emergency situations with no teacher training at all.

In Costa Rica there is a very complex system of inspectors, supervisors and principals. This is a stronger system of educational supervision than in any other country in Central America, and it indicates a degree of sophistication and of supportive help and guidance which is unique to Costa Rica. Modern educational thought is very pronounced in the curriculum which has departed from the concept of rote learning, and it involves much active participation on the part of the student. There are at the present time six teacher-training schools in Costa Rica. They are located in San Jose, Guanacaste, San Ramon, San Isidro, and two in Heredia. Since 1957 it has been necessary to hold a Bachillerato en Ciencias y Letras to apply to these schools. They offer a two-year teacher-training course following the secondary schooling. The School of Education in the University of Costa Rica also offers teacher training as does the Teacher Training Institute. The Teacher Training Institute exists "to improve the training of uncertificated teachers".

At the present time Costa Rica is the only country in Central America where the educational system at the secondary level is so efficient that all graduates cannot be accommodated at the university level. The University can admit only about 2,500 new students per year, and the secondary school system is graduating approximately 6,000 Bachillers per year. Hopefully, in the near future the size of the university will be increased.


EL SALVADOR
AGE 4 6 7 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27
PRIMARY EDUCATION
SECONDARY EDUCATION
HIGHER EDUCATION
IST CYCLE
SCI. & LETTERS
HUMAN SCIENCES
ACCOUNTING
ECONOMICS
ART
ENG. & ARCHITECTURE
TECHNICAL
MEDICINE
TEACH. TRNG.
DENTISTRY
AGRICULTURE
CHEM. & PHARMACY
MILITARY
LAW & SOCIAL SCIENCE
SOCIAL SERVICE
COMMAND & STAFF
TEACH. TNG.
KINDER-GARTEN
UNIVERSITY COURSES

III. EL SALVADOR

Primary schooling in El Salvador is a six-year program divided into three cycles. As is typical in Central America, however, the rural schools do not always manage to complete the first cycle, much less the second.

Primary education again is compulsory, but this compulsory aspect is not enforced due to the great need for children to work. Even if it were enforced, there are a number of loopholes in the regulations, such as the stipulation that education is not compulsory if a child lives more than three kilometers from school. Primary school grading is on a 1 to 10 scale, and a student must have a grade of 6 to pass into secondary school. As recently as ten years ago, it was reported that 70% of primary teachers in El Salvador had no certificate or diploma of any kind. Standards of teacher training vary greatly in El Salvador. While the theoretical standards are quite good; in practice, it is necessary for primary teachers to be employed with very little education beyond that of their pupils.

Secondary schooling consists of a five-year program, again divided into two cycles of three years and two years. Until very recently, there was no examination required for admission to secondary schooling, but one has been required for the past few years. Grading in the secondary schools is on a 1 to 10 scale, and a student within the secondary system is promoted with an average grade of 5.

There are four institutions of higher education in El Salvador:

1. The University of El Salvador.
2. The Social Service School.
3. The Higher Teacher Training School.
4. The Armed Forces Staff College.

The Social Service School and the Higher Teacher Training School are both supervised by the Ministry of Education, while the Armed Forces Staff College is supervised by the Ministry of Defense.

A student applying for admission to the University of El Salvador must present

a number of documents including a birth certificate, and he must be the possessor of the Bachillerato Superior. There are some exceptions to this requirement, since the Faculty of Economics of the University will admit students with the title of Contador, and other faculties may have similar exceptions. It is required, however, that a student have at least the equivalent of the number of years of education required by the Bachillerato, and that he possess the title which would only be expected in the termination of his particular program.

There is a four-year course within the University for translators and interpreters, but this is not recognized within El Salvador as an academic degree.

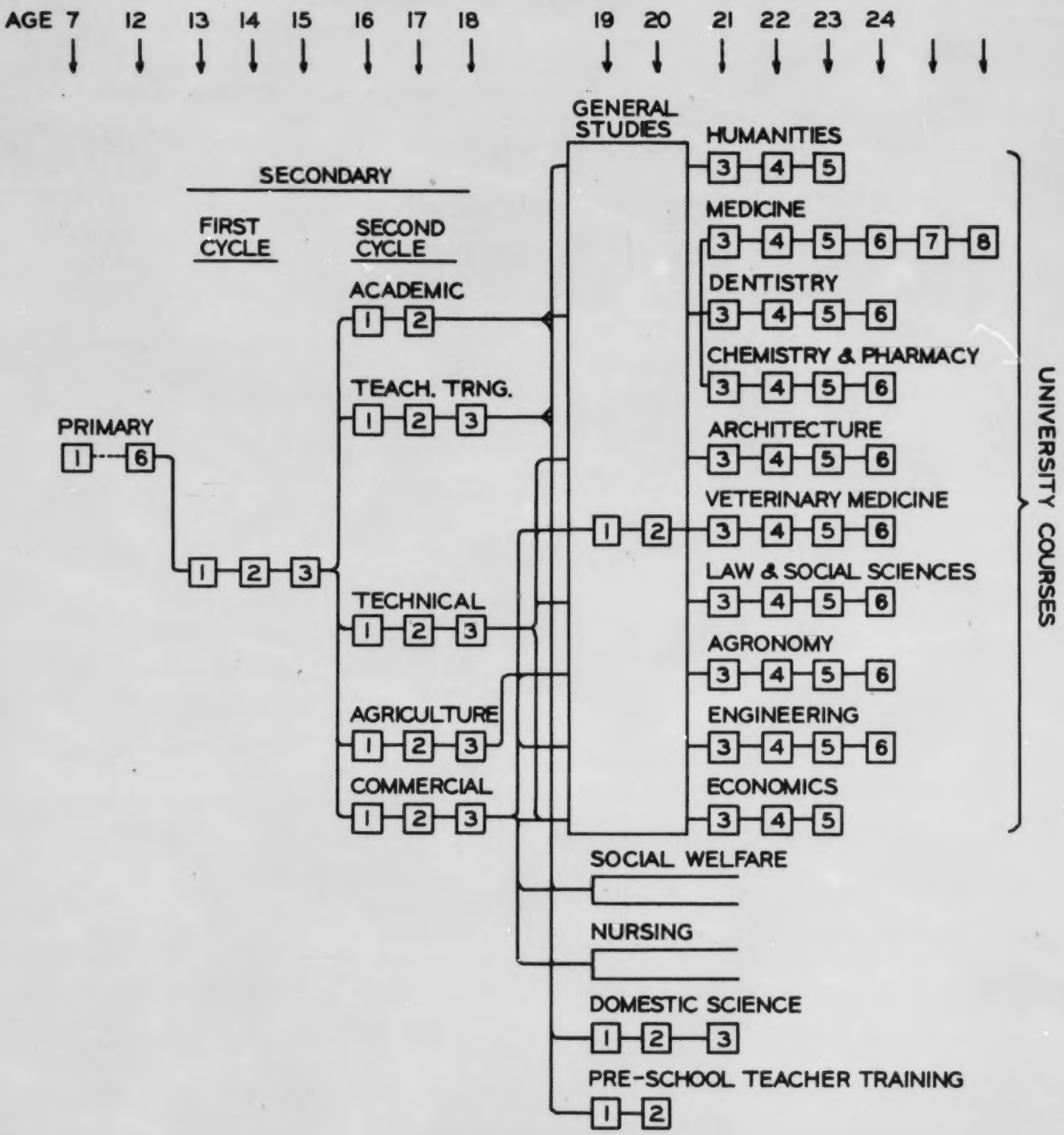
As can be seen by the accompanying chart, the doctorate is the first degree in many fields. The difference in titles between El Salvador and other countries should not lead to confusion, however. The doctorate stands at the level of the Licenciado in most Central American countries, and should be considered the same, if based on the same number of years. The output of the University of El Salvador is extremely small. From the academic year of 1954 through 1964 the University of El Salvador graduated an average of only 62 students per year. To be admitted to the higher teacher-training school (Escuela Normal Superior), a student must have had three years of teaching experience, and in addition, hold the Bachillerato, or the equivalent. It is obvious from this requirement that the school is, strictly speaking, a higher teacher-training school and not the typical normal school.

IV. GUATEMALA

Guatemalan primary schools are definitely divided into the two types of rural and urban. The rural primary schools in Guatemala are, in theory, six-year schools; but, in practice, are for the most part three-year schools only. These schools are allowed some flexibility to meet local conditions in terms of curriculum. The urban primary schools offer a full six-year course.

Secondary schooling in Guatemala is again divided into two cycles. The first cycle consists of three years of general education, common to all secondary schools.

GUATEMALA


AGE 7 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
PRIMARY
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SECONDARY
FIRST CYCLE
1 2 3
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ACADEMIC
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TEACH. TRNG.
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TECHNICAL
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AGRICULTURE
1 2 3
COMMERCIAL
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GENERAL STUDIES
1 2
HUMANITIES
3 4 5
MEDICINE
3 4 5 6 7 8
DENTISTRY
3 4 5 6
CHEMISTRY & PHARMACY
3 4 5 6
ARCHITECTURE
3 4 5 6
VETERINARY MEDICINE
3 4 5 6
LAW & SOCIAL SCIENCES
3 4 5 6
AGRONOMY
3 4 5 6
ENGINEERING
3 4 5 6
ECONOMICS
3 4 5
UNIVERSITY COURSES
SOCIAL WELFARE
NURSING
DOMESTIC SCIENCE
1 2 3
PRE-SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING
1 2

This will be followed by either the two years of specialized education leading to the School Leaving Certificate, or teacher training, while a student headed for the university would take a "college preparatory" course leading to the Bachillerato. The Bachillerato is, therefore, granted after eleven years of total schooling, but a more typical program for a Guatemalan student would be a twelve-year program leading to such titles as Perito Agricule, Perito Contador, Perito Industrial.

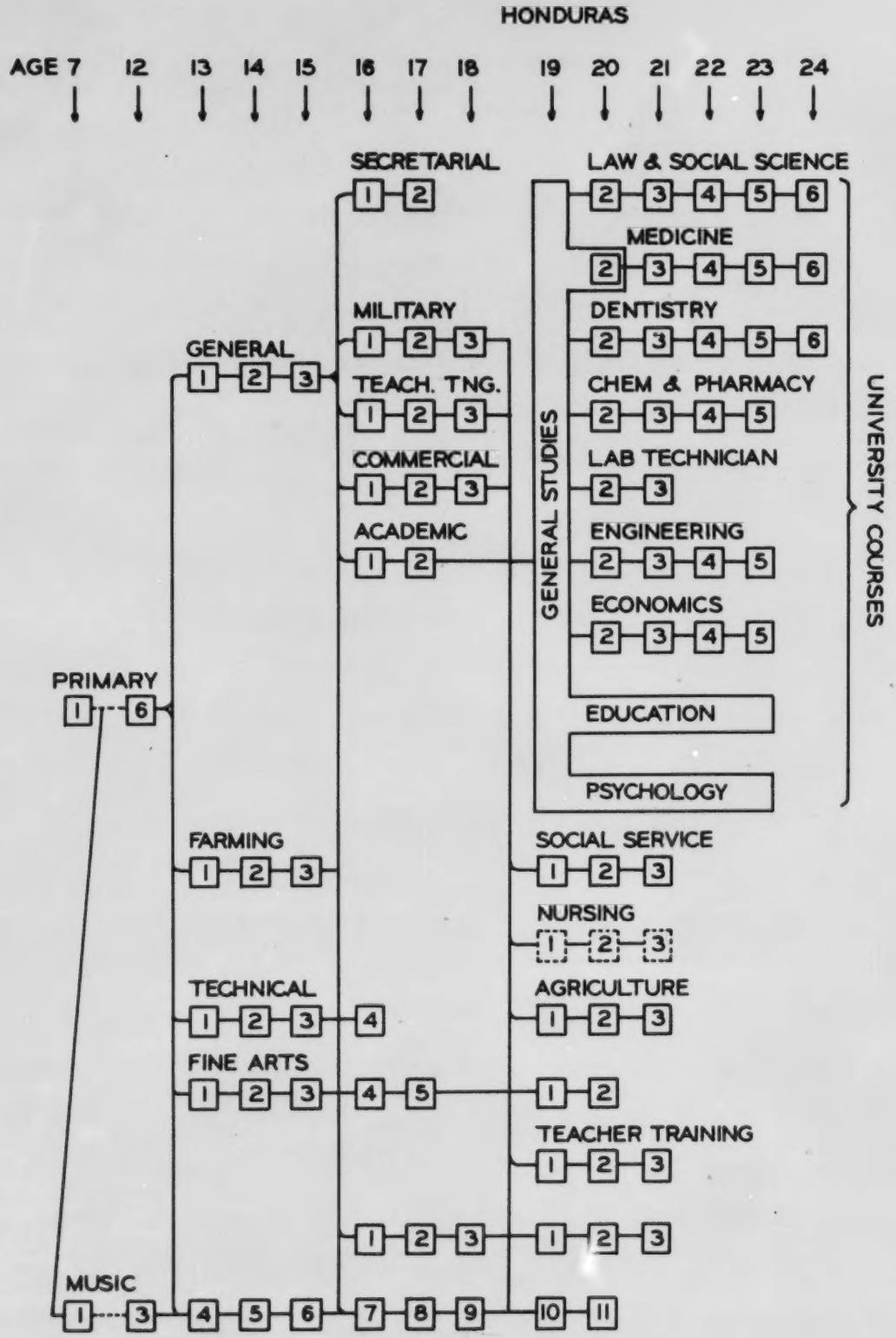
All university degrees in Guatemala are at least four-year degrees, and several require from six to eight years. There are four universities offering higher education in Guatemala:

1. Universidad de San Carlos de Guatemala.
2. Universidad "Rafael Landivar".
3. Universidad del Valle de Guatemala.
4. Universidad Evangelica de Guatemala "Dr. Mariano Galvez".

The University of San Carlos is the state university, and is the oldest university in Central America, having been founded in 1562. The Universidad "Rafael Landivar" is a Catholic university founded in 1961. In 1966 the two additional universities were founded. Mariano Galvez is a Protestant university, while Universidad del Valle is an outgrowth of the American School of Guatemala, and is strongly U.S. oriented both in its program and in its use of research techniques.

V. HONDURAS

In Honduras, as in other countries in Central America, primary schooling is clearly divided into the two types of rural and urban. Urban primary schooling is six years, and in the capital of Tegucigalpa and other major cities, there are several excellent experimental schools. In the rural primary system, there are three types of schools. The first is the Ordinary rural school which is a three-year program. The Model school which is also three years, and the Travelling school. The Travelling school, as the name might indicate, offers a short five-month literacy program. Both the Ordinary and Model schools emphasize such areas as


HONDURAS
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PRIMARY
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MUSIC
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GENERAL
1 2 3
FARMING
1 2 3
TECHNICAL
1 2 3 4
FINE ARTS
1 2 3 4 5
SECRETARIAL
1 2
MILITARY
1 2 3
TEACH. TNG.
1 2 3
COMMERCIAL
1 2 3
ACADEMIC
1 2
1 2 3
4 5 6 7 8 9
GENERAL STUDIES
LAW & SOCIAL SCIENCE
2 3 4 5 6
MEDICINE
2 3 4 5 6
DENTISTRY
2 3 4 5 6
CHEM & PHARMACY
2 3 4 5
LAB TECHNICIAN
2 3
ENGINEERING
2 3 4 5
ECONOMICS
2 3 4 5
EDUCATION
PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY COURSES
SOCIAL SERVICE
1 2 3
NURSING
1 2 3
AGRICULTURE
1 2 3
1 2
TEACHER TRAINING
1 2 3
1 2 3
10 11

agriculture and animal husbandry. In general, there is no entrance examination required for secondary schooling in Honduras with the exception of the Central Institute for Boys in Tegucigalpa which is a state secondary school.

Higher education in Honduras is centered in the University of Honduras which is moving from downtown Tegucigalpa to a new university city on the outskirts.

Teacher training for primary teachers is normally three years following primary schooling, if a teacher plans to teach in a rural school; or five years following primary schooling, if a teacher plans to teach in an urban primary school.

In general, the Central American countries face a problem of very limited funds being available for education. The ultimate limitation in this regard, however, must be found in Honduras where education faces a very small budget and extremely limited expenditures. At the same time there are very advanced ideas regarding many aspects of education, such as teacher pension and retirement, and student control of the university. There are also ideas which are found in almost no other area of Central America, such as great emphasis on student welfare services including free meals. Unfortunately, however, the fact that these services exist in some areas does not help the total system. The vast majority of students who enter school fail to complete anything beyond first and second grades.

The entrance requirements for secondary school in Honduras state, "To be admitted to the first-year class of secondary schools, pupils must be at least 13 years of age, have successfully completed their studies at an urban primary school, enjoy good health, and be well-behaved". This requirement alone obviously excludes the rural primary student from going on for secondary education. Only very recently (1957) has secondary school training been formally organized. Up until that time secondary teaching was largely done by professionals working on a part-time basis, and this again would seem to indicate that relatively few students have been involved in secondary education.

Spanish is, of course, the main language of instruction here, as elsewhere in

Central America, but local dialects are used in some sections of Honduras, such as Gracias Adios, and English is used as a supplement on the Islas de Las Bahia (Bay Island).

Higher education in Honduras consists of five institutions:

1. Universidad National Autonoma in Tegucigalpa.
2. Pan-American Agricultural School.
3. School of Social Welfare.
4. National School of Nursing.
5. Francisco Morazan Higher Teacher Training School.

There is, in addition, a branch of the National University in the dynamic and growing city of San Pedro Sula.

To be admitted to the University a student must possess a Bachillerato or a Leaving Certificate from a commercial school. Medicine and some other faculties may also require an examination.

VI. NICARAGUA

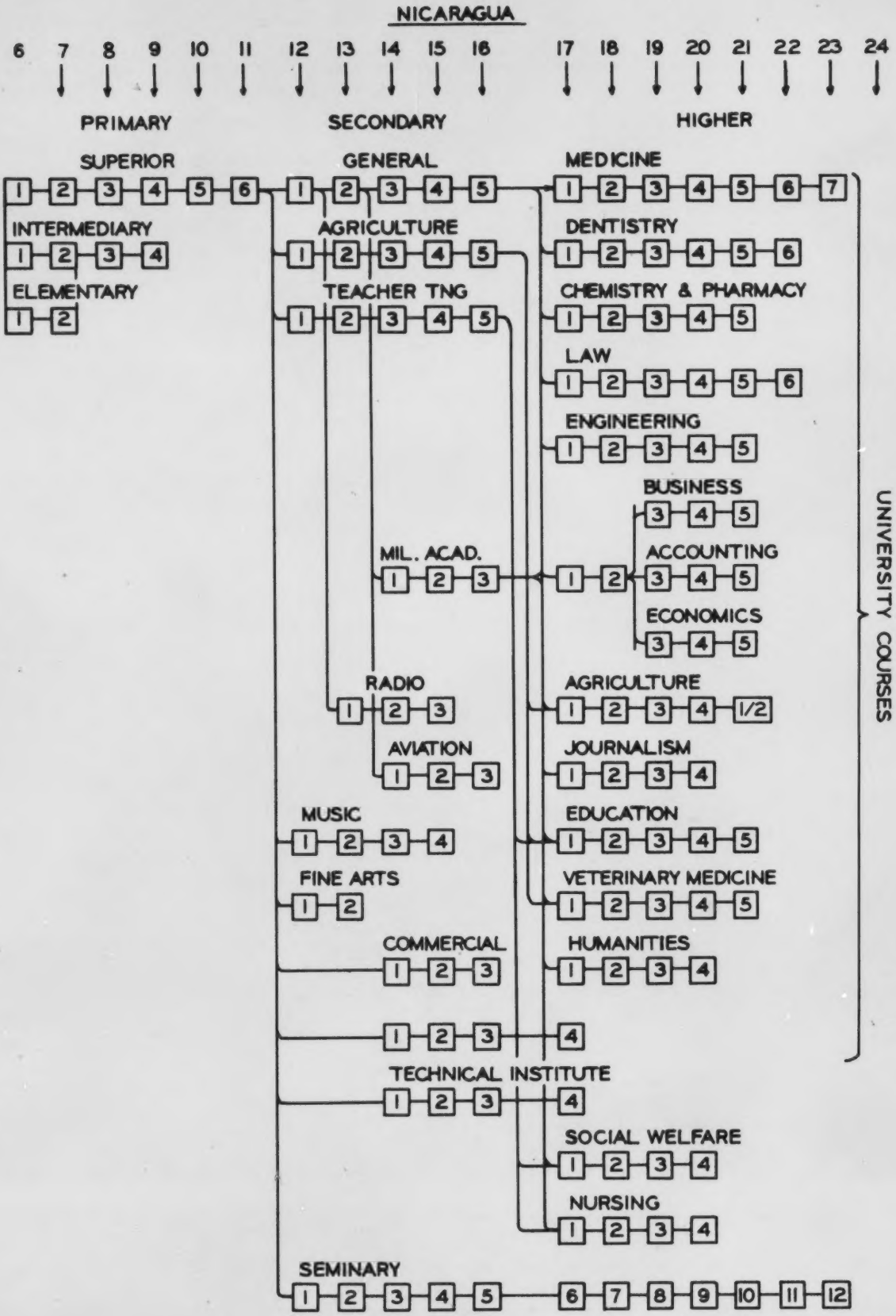
Nicaragua has three types of primary education. The first is a two-year program referred to as Elemental, the second is four years and is referred to as Graduada, and the third type is a six-year program referred to as Superior.

Secondary education is a five-year program which is given in both state and private institutions. A state school would be known as an Instituto Nacional, and a private school would be referred to as a Colegio. Secondary education is divided into two cycles of three years and two years each.

There are four universities in Nicaragua:

1. Universidad Nacional en Leon.
2. Universidad Nacional en Managua.
3. Universidad Nacional en Hinotepe. (1 year only)
4. Universidad Catolica Centroamericana.

In addition to the four above, there was at an earlier date a Universidad de Oriente


NICARAGUA
6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
PRIMARY
SECONDARY
HIGHER
SUPERIOR
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INTERMEDIARY
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ELEMENTARY
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GENERAL
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AGRICULTURE
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MIL. ACAD.
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RADIO
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AVIATION
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MUSIC
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FINE ARTS
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COMMERCIAL
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TECHNICAL INSTITUTE
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SEMINARY
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MEDICINE
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DENTISTRY
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CHEMISTRY & PHARMACY
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LAW
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ENGINEERING
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BUSINESS
3 4 5
ACCOUNTING
3 4 5
ECONOMICS
3 4 5
1 2
AGRICULTURE
1 2 3 4 1/2
JOURNALISM
1 2 3 4
EDUCATION
1 2 3 4 5
VETERINARY MEDICINE
1 2 3 4 5
HUMANITIES
1 2 3 4
SOCIAL WELFARE
1 2 3 4
NURSING
1 2 3 4
UNIVERSITY COURSES

y Mediodia in Granada. This was discontinued in 1951, however. The recently established Universidad Catolica Centroamericana is a Jesuit institution which was designed as a Jesuit university for all of Central America. In practice, however, the vast majority of students attending this university are from Nicaragua.

For many years teacher training in Nicaragua was a five-year course parallel to the Bachillerato program. Since it included some professional subjects, however, it was not considered as strong academically as the program leading to the Bachillerato. This is no longer true. The teacher-training course at the secondary level is now a six-year program, so that it is considered the equivalent of the Bachillerato plus one year of professional work.

In addition to the universities listed, there is also a National Agricultural School with a four and a half-year program and a National School of Public Accountancy with a three and a half-year program. Only primary education is required for admission to the School of Hygiene, the National School of Music, the National School of Fine Arts, and the various military schools as well as the National Seminary. The military schools offer the Bachillerato during the course of instruction. The National Seminary has a twelve-year course, so that the student completing the program has completed 18 years of schooling. It is believed in Nicaragua, however, that the program in the seminary is not academic and can in no way be compared to university training.

The Bachillerato is required for admission to the University, but the fields of engineering and medicine may require additional examinations. Teacher certificates may also be offered for admission to the School of Education.

While there has traditionally been a great shortage of textbooks throughout Central America, this has been a particular problem in Nicaragua. For the past few years they have shown much improvement in this regard, however, through the establishment of better book stores and a system of libraries and book rentals. The distribution of enrollment of students in various levels of education in Nicaragua is

interesting as it typifies rather well the distribution of students throughout Central America. Of the total enrollment of students in Nicaragua in education, exclusive of the universities, 3% are in kindergarten, 92% are in primary schools, 4% are in secondary schools, and less than 1% in teacher training. Again the biggest drop-out occurs between the first and second grades.

Within the University of Nicaragua there is no ranking of students, but the three best in each major subject, or each faculty, would be selected each year for special notice. The grading standards may vary from one faculty of the university to another. Where a scale of 1 to 100 is used, 60% is generally required for passing. The School of Engineering, for example, requires that each class be passed, but that a student have an overall average of 60 for promotion. A grade of 50 to 60 would be considered conditional. When the grading is on the basis of 6.0 to 10, a mark of 8 would be required for passing the course. In many secondary schools a grade of 7.5 is required in each course.

English preparation in Nicaragua is somewhat better than in other Central American countries since a foreign language is required of all students, and a portion of this language requirement must be English.

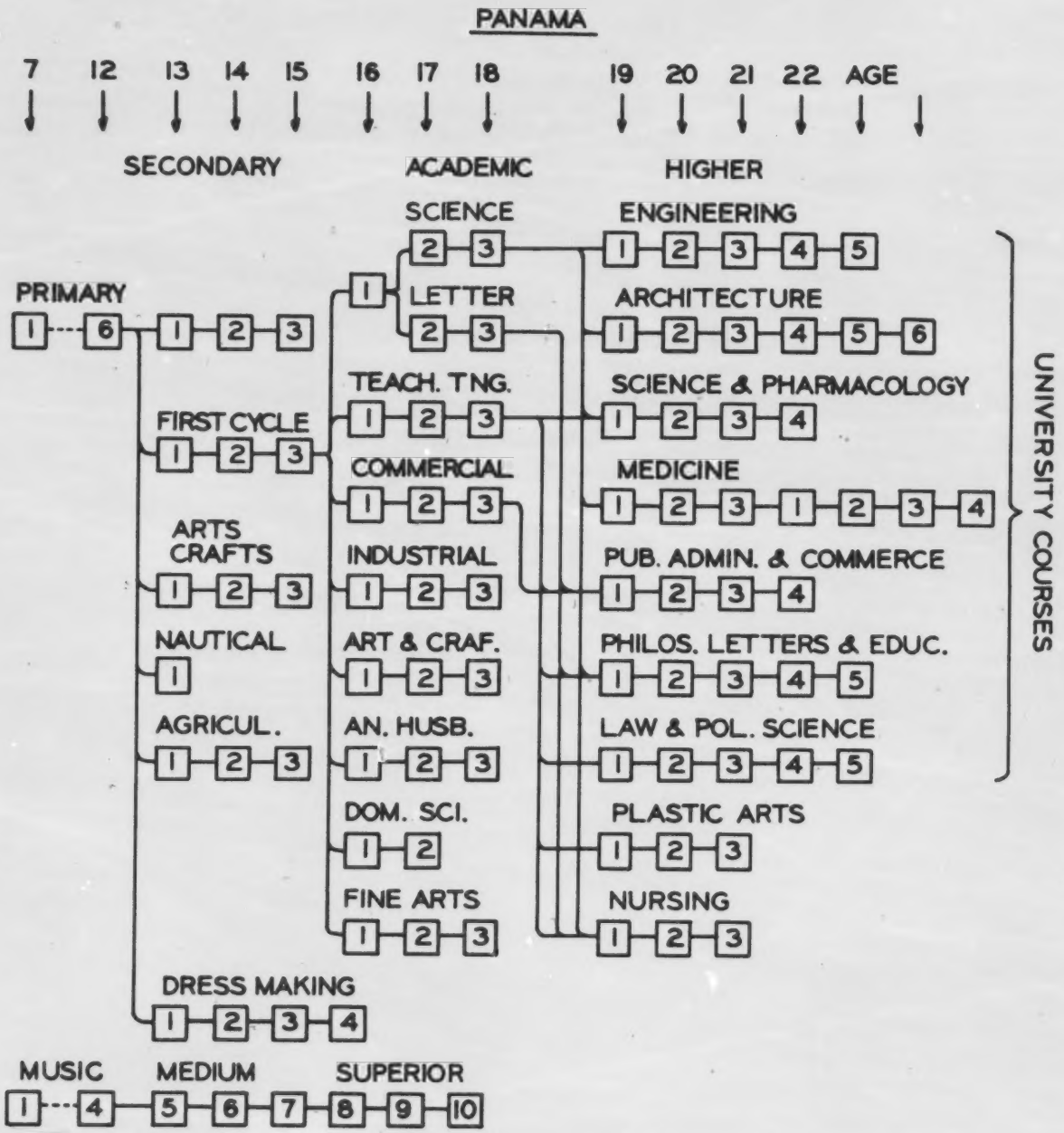
VII. PANAMA

The primary program in Panama is six years in length, although again this is not always true in rural areas. The secondary system of education in Panama consists of two cycles, each lasting three years. This, therefore, is different from other Central American countries where secondary education is now only five years.

There are, technically speaking, two types of secondary schools in Panama:

1. Incorporadas (Incorporated).
2. Libres (Free).

The incorporated schools must meet certain state requirements, and offer certain courses in history and civics. The second type of school is not bound by any restrictions, but the certificates of these schools are not recognized for purposes


PANAMA
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20
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AGE
SECONDARY
ACADEMIC
HIGHER
PRIMARY
1 6
1 2 3
FIRST CYCLE
1 2 3
ARTS CRAFTS
1 2 3
NAUTICAL
1
AGRICUL.
1 2 3
DRESS MAKING
1 2 3 4
1
SCIENCE
2 3
LETTER
2 3
TEACH. TNG.
1 2 3
COMMERCIAL
1 2 3
INDUSTRIAL
1 2 3
ART & CRAF.
1 2 3
AN. HUSB.
1 2 3
DOM. SCI.
1 2
FINE ARTS
1 2 3
ENGINEERING
1 2 3 4 5
ARCHITECTURE
1 2 3 4 5 6
SCIENCE & PHARMACOLOGY
1 2 3 4
MEDICINE
1 2 3 1 2 3 4
PUB. ADMIN. & COMMERCE
1 2 3 4
PHILOS. LETTERS & EDUC.
1 2 3 4 5
LAW & POL. SCIENCE
1 2 3 4 5
PLASTIC ARTS
1 2 3
NURSING
1 2 3
UNIVERSITY COURSES
MUSIC
MEDIUM
SUPERIOR
1 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

of university admission.

The vocational programs offered in Panama are rather limited, and are usually only two to three years following primary education. Nursing, however, is a three-year program following four years of secondary schooling.

Higher education is offered by the University of Panama which is, in theory, autonomous, but as was mentioned earlier in this report, this university was occupied by federal troops during the course of this author's visit to Panama.

Teacher training is offered for primary teachers in the Juan Demostenes Arosemena Teacher Training School. Two three-year secondary cycles in this school will train primary teachers. The School of Education at the University of Panama is the main training ground for secondary school teachers.

The Bachillerato may admit to all faculties of the University, but a student going into medicine must, in addition, meet certain pre-medical requirements. The Maestro Normal and the Perito Mercantile will admit to some faculties in addition.

There is a Catholic university recently established with the title of Universidad Catolica de Santa Maria. While this has no official standing at the present time, in two to three years it should be recognized as a degree granting institution.

English is required for six years in secondary school in Panama. It is also available in the University, although it is not required at that level. By far the largest number of students at the University of Panama will be enrolled in the Faculty of Philosophy, since this faculty will admit all Bachillerato holders without restriction.

The grading system within the university is from 1.0 as lowest passing average to a 3.0 as the highest grade. An average between 2.5 and 3.0 would be considered an honors average. In secondary school grading may be on an 0 to 5, or an 0 to 10 scale; in the case of the former, 3 would be considered the lowest passing grade, and 6 would be considered the lowest passing on the latter scale. In addition to passing an entrance examination required for the particular faculty in the university,

a student must also do well in his general studies program before advancing into the major field.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. In view of the basic 11-year program of education in all Central American countries (except Panama which has 12 years), an admissions officer may wish to require that the applicant from one of these countries first complete an additional year of post-secondary study, or else carry a reduced load during his first semester or two in a U.S. university, taking remedial courses where they may be indicated.
2. It is recommended that students who have attended a Central American university be considered eligible to apply for graduate standing on the basis of the successful completion of a four-year program in the university.
3. It is recommended that U.S. universities give transfer credit to students entering from Latin American universities on a course by course basis, if appropriate to the student's academic objective.
4. It is recommended using caution as well as flexibility in measuring secondary school averages from Central American countries, and equating these averages to U.S. grades. Minimum passing grades in a Central American secondary school do not necessarily equate to a D grade in the U.S. There is at the same time a complete distribution of grades, and students in Central American secondary schools can earn the top grade. The quality of the school, if it can be determined, and the consistency of the student's performance should be considered.
5. The Bachillerato, or Perito (equivalent to U.S. high school diploma) should ordinarily be required of all students wishing to enter a U.S. university as a freshman. A student should be admissible to the university in his own country, and the certificates mentioned above are normally required by the Central American universities. If, on the other hand, the transcript which a student presents certifies that he has received the Bachillerato, or Perito, it is not

necessary that a copy of the actual document accompany this credential.

6. Transcripts of all secondary and post-secondary education should be required of students applying to U.S. institutions. Included on the transcript should be courses taken, grades received, years attended, ranking if possible, and the usual recommendations of the authority who presented the transcript.
7. It is advised that letters of recommendation be given considerable weight in considering Central American students for admission. It is advised that letters of recommendation from the principals of the school in the case of secondary students be requested. In the case of students applying at the graduate level, it is particularly important to receive a letter of recommendation from the student's thesis adviser.
8. TOEFL or some other standardized English test results should be received of all students applying from Central America, regardless of whether they have attended an American secondary school.
9. It should be considered extremely important to receive a chronology of a student's entire formal education in order to determine the number of years of elementary, secondary, and university schooling completed.

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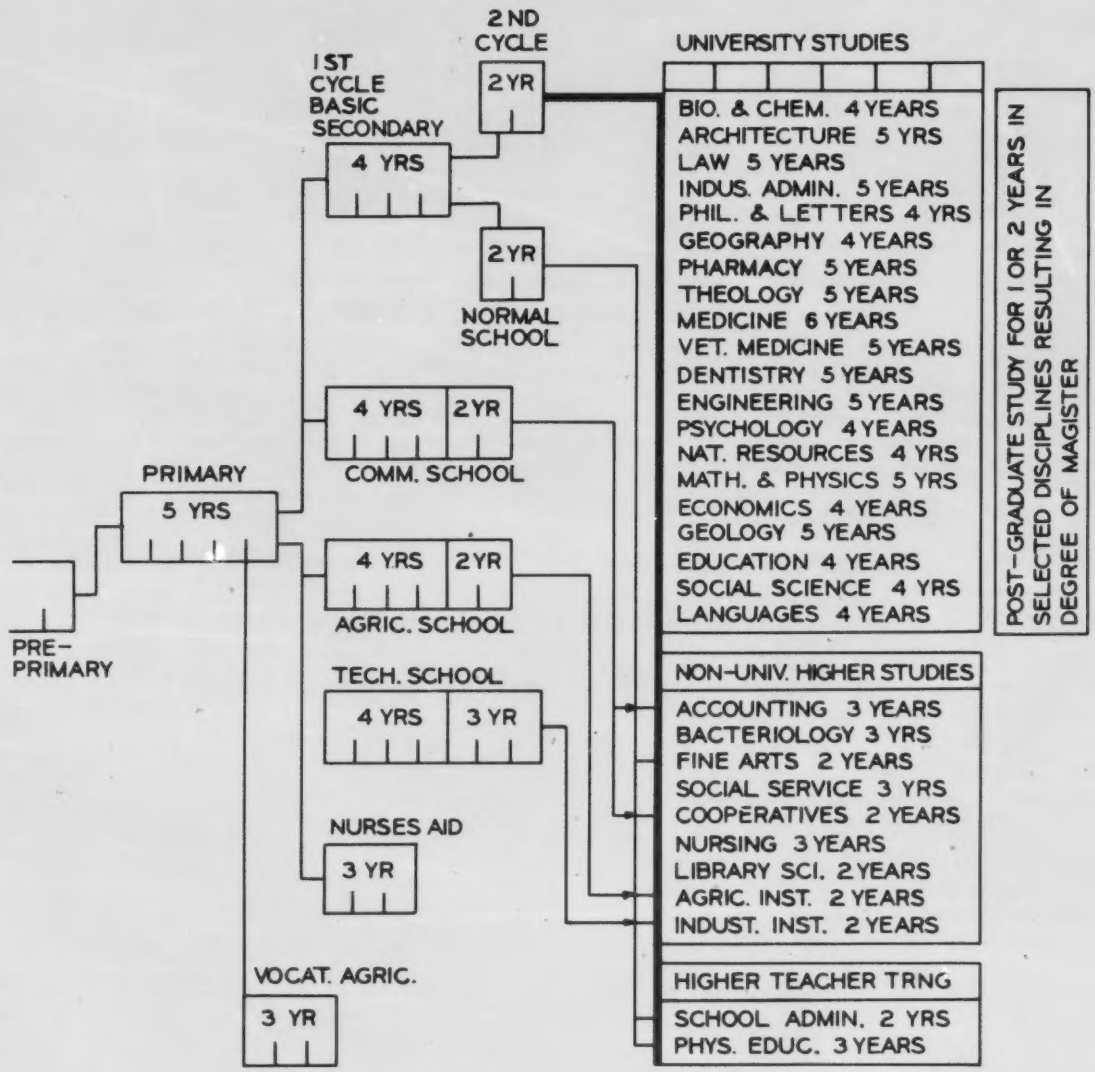
COLOMBIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

PRE-PRIMARY AGE 4 5 6	PRIMARY 5 YEARS 7 8 9 10 11	SECONDARY-EDUCATION MEDIA-6 YEARS 12 13 14 15 16 17	HIGHER EDUCATION 18 19 20 21 22 23 24



U.S. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

PRE-PRIMARY AGE 4 5	PRIMARY 6 YEARS 6 7 8 9 10 11	SECONDARY 6 YEARS 12 13 14 15 16 17	HIGHER EDUCATION 18 19 20 21 22 23 24

COLOMBIA

by Robert Schuiteman

I. BACKGROUND

From the beginning of the Spanish colonial period until about the first decade of the 1800's the Catholic church was the principle authority in education. The first schools established by religious orders during the early 1500's were designed to convert Indians to Roman Catholicism. In the middle 1500's schools expanded their curriculum to include reading, writing, arithmetic and singing. Children of Spanish settlers were taught language, religion and the arts in special schools established for them. The first Jesuit Seminary was founded in 1605 in Bogota. This was followed by the establishment of similar institutions in other cities. Only sons of Spanish settlers and government officials were eligible. The country's two oldest universities, the Javeriana and the Colegio Mayor de Nuestra Senora del Rosario were founded in 1622 and 1653, respectively.

The nineteenth century marked the beginning of secular influence in education. The first teacher-training schools were established in 1822. In 1826, the predecessor of the Ministry of Education was established which provided for the central administration of education at the national level.

Although the dominance of government in education was affirmed in several laws and decrees even in the early Republic and has been reaffirmed in the Constitution, the church has remained influential. According to the Concordat of 1887, education was to be "organized and directed in accordance with the dogmas and moral code of the Catholic church". The church was given the right to inspect all texts related to the study of religion and morals. It should be noted, however, that private, non-church related institutions as well as governmental-sponsored institutions have increased significantly. Kindergartens are almost entirely private in Colombia. Presently, the public secular sector is growing more rapidly than the private.

Access to education traditionally has been the privilege of the elite.

Education has been synonomous with social prestige. This tradition of the elite to perpetuate itself through education has given ground to an increasing demand voiced in government, among intellectuals and among representatives of industry, for raising the level of literacy and for training people for the professions, other than theology, medicine and law, and the trades.

A word should be said about the rise of nationalism in Colombia and Latin America as an important phenomenon that is gradually influencing all aspects of society. The transition from the elite to popular nationalism is today a major social-political force. It is a significant factor in producing the autonomous university--a university with freedom to teach universal truths, the liberty to investigate and interpret national realities, and the resources to reach more of the people. This twentieth century concept has been called "the mission of the university", and has had its principle expression in the National University. Other universities have sprung up, following the model of the National. Some of these are Atlantico, Tolima, Caldas, Santander, and Narino. Another consequence has been the founding of universities patterned after the North American style, such as the Andes, America, Valle. This increased nationalism and independence of universities has given cause for strikes and leftist movements among university students. Student power has long been a force to be reckoned with in Colombian higher education.

The Ministry of Education

Although the Federal Constitution guarantees the right to own and operate educational institutions, they are subject to overall governmental supervision. The key organization is the Ministry of Education. In recent years there has been a trend toward decentralization of national authority and more responsibility has been delegated to the departments (states). Nevertheless, the Ministry supervises all educational institutions, public and private. It establishes elementary and secondary courses of study, minimum standards for the evaluation of student performance and the approval of textbooks for the official curricula. It approves the establishment of

institutions of higher education either directly or through the Colombian Association of Universities.

In 1960, 27% of the total education budget was earmarked for higher education: 15% to the National University, 10% to the departmental universities, and 2% to private universities. Because of the increase in the number of universities these funds are rather thinly spread. Departmental and municipal contributions to university budgets are generally limited. A few progressive university administrators have initiated vigorous public relations programs designed to enlist financial support from local governments and private groups. A few institutions, such as the University of Andes, depend almost entirely on private donations.

II. CURRENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

A. Elementary Education

Public elementary education is free and compulsory for ages 7 through 11. The minimum age for admission to the first grade is 7. Schools are not usually co-educational; boys and girls either attend different schools or different sections of the same school. The school year consists of 198 days of classes, held six hours daily, Monday through Friday, and three hours on Saturday. Two years of pre-school (optional) and five years of grade school comprise the elementary system. The study program covers seven major areas: religious and moral education, language arts, mathematics, social studies, natural sciences, esthetics and manual arts, and physical education.

The majority of elementary schools are free, public institutions operated by the departmental governments with assistance from the National Ministry of Education. Most private elementary schools are Catholic. School construction has not kept pace with the increasing school-age population. In some of the rural areas of the country children have no schools to attend. Many schools function in buildings which were not intended for the purpose and consequently are seriously deficient in facilities.

Most rural schools have two or three grades and are served by one teacher. In several regions the educational needs of the area are served by a system consisting of a number of rural schools, known as sectional schools, plus a central school. The central school is equipped to provide elementary instruction for the community in which it is located, and in addition, coordinates and directs all study and extra-curricular activities in the sectional schools.

Because of the drastic shortage of space in the elementary schools, especially in the outlying areas, a recent Presidential decree authorized the operation of schools on an intensive double-shift basis. Furthermore, the classrooms are arranged in a way that permits one teacher to supervise instruction for all five grades at the same time. This concept is referred to as the "unitary school".

In 1960, there were approximately 42,400 children enrolled in pre-primary schools (nursery and kindergarten) and 1,690,000 in the primary schools. According to the Ministry of Education, in 1968 there were 126,500 in the pre-primary schools and 2,700,000 in the primary grades.

According to the latest calculations of the Ministry of Education there is approximately a 20% retention rate in the five years of elementary school. Only four out of one thousand students beginning primary school will complete the entire educational structure, including higher education.

B. Secondary Education

Secondary education, referred to as "educacion media", is defined as any type of middle-level* education, that is, anything between the elementary and university or higher levels, based on completion of elementary education. The term, "secundaria", usually implies an academic, college preparatory program resulting in the degree of Bachillerato.

Middle-level education is divided into six types: general secondary or

* In this section, the terms, "middle-level" and "secondary", are used interchangeably.

Bachillerato, industrial, commercial, agricultural, vocational education for women, and teacher training. Ranging in age from 12 through 19, the students attend sexually segregated classes Monday through Saturday, averaging seven hours daily, for a total academic year of 198 days. Public education is free except for books and supplies and a small registration charge. Courses of study and textbooks are subject to approval of the Ministry of Education.

Although 55% of all secondary schools are private, they accommodate close to 80% of the students enrolled at this level.

In 1960, there was a total of 253,768 students enrolled in the middle-level programs. This number increased to 513,398 in 1966, of which 320,287 were registered in the Bachillerato program, 129,562 in vocational education and 63,549 in the normal (teacher-training) secondary schools. For 1968, the Ministry of Education estimated a total of 395,000 in the Bachillerato program. (The Ministry calculates that 26,000 will complete the program). The total number of students in middle-level courses for 1968 was approximately 625,000. In 1966, there were a total of 3,026 schools with a teaching staff of 34,526.

All types of middle-level education are comprised of two cycles--a four-year cycle of basic studies and a two-year cycle of "specialization". The stated purpose of this arrangement is to assure a general education to a greater number of students regardless of whether they continue their education into the second cycle or must discontinue and go to work. The system permits the student to transfer from one type of school to another before beginning the second cycle. Likewise, it permits the student who planned to go on to the university to shift to a technical or teacher-training program at this point of beginning specialized studies.

The school year is divided into two semesters. At the end of the first term partial examinations are conducted and final examinations are held upon completion of the second term. Students passing all subjects move on to the next grade without additional requirements. Those who fail in one or two subjects are held back and

must take a later examination to qualify in those subjects before being promoted. Students failing three or more subjects must repeat the grade.

The scale of marks is 1 to 5. Marks of 3, 4, and 5 are passing, but a 5 is rarely given. Marks are given as whole numbers and in decimal sub-divisions. By and large, the method of evaluation of a student's work is non-scientific and unreliable due to the lack of appropriately trained teachers.

1. The Academic Bachillerato Program

The complete general secondary or academic Bachillerato course consists of six years divided into the two cycles*. The first cycle is terminal and leads to a certificate of completion of studies (certificado de aprobacion del ciclo basico), but it admits to some institutions of higher learning, such as schools of agriculture and business. The second cycle of the Bachillerato course consists of two years of study in preparation for admission to a professional school in a university or other institution of higher learning. The degree of Bachillerato is conferred upon the successful completion of the second cycle, and the holder of this degree is referred to as a "Bachiller".

Five major subject areas comprise the course of study: mathematics, Spanish and foreign languages, social studies, natural sciences, and moral and religious education. In many schools this program is supplemented by instruction in the arts and extra-curricular activities.

In view of the fact that only a very small percentage complete secondary education and an even smaller number go on into higher education, the academic Bachillerato curriculum has been criticized for its almost exclusive academic nature and for its general irrelevance for those who do not enter a university.

2. Technical Secondary Education

All types of secondary education except for the academic Bachillerato program are referred to as "technical education".

* The following terms are used when referring to academic secondary schools: colegio, liceo, instituto, gimnasio.

Commercial Schools

Next to the Bachillerato course in popularity is commercial education. It consists of two cycles, the first of four years duration offers training leading to the title of "Bookkeeping and Secretarial Assistant". The second cycle of two years leads to the title of "Business Technician" or "Commercial Bachillerato".

Agricultural Schools

At present, schools of vocational agriculture offer a two-year course beyond four or five years of the rural elementary school largely to farmers' sons with limited family income. There is a proposal to increase the course to four years in order to meet the common standard of the four-year first cycle of middle-level education. This course, for which there is no age limit for admission, is an all-scholarship program. For students living too far from the school boarding facilities are provided. Day students have a piece of land at their disposal where they can carry out agricultural projects. Graduates may continue into the agricultural schools where, after four additional years, they become teachers of vocational agriculture.

Industrial and Technical Schools

This type of middle-level education takes two forms: the industrial school and the higher technical institute. The industrial school offers a five-year program of study leading to the title of "Experto"; specialization is provided in electricity, mechanics, metal work, foundry works, ceramics, etc. The higher technical institute offers a seven-year program leading to the title of "Industrial Technician" (Tecnico Industrial) with specialization in aviation mechanics and civil construction. To be eligible for admission to the industrial schools the student must have completed the five-year elementary program and have attained the age of 13 years.

Vocational Education for Women

Four types of schools offer vocational education for women: 1) supplementary and higher polytechnic schools; 2) schools for farm-home visitors; 3) farm-home schools; 4) auxiliary schools of rural nursing.

3. Teacher Training

Underpaid and poorly trained teachers is one of the critical problems in Colombian education. Low salaries and insecurity of placement, promotion and tenure make the profession an unattractive one. In general, primary and secondary teaching is not prestigious.

In many of the public secondary teachers' (normal) schools tuition and board are free. The rate of attrition is remarkably high, and it has been estimated that of those who do graduate not more than 30% actually dedicate themselves to teaching. Many students who do not have a serious intention to teach will enroll in order to have education beyond the first cycle, plus the free food and lodging.

Admission to the normal schools, which prepare teachers for the elementary system, is based on completion of the first cycle or the four-year general course of studies. Upon completion of the two-year second, or professional cycle the title "Maestro Normalista" is awarded. Most normal schools now have both cycles and admission is direct from the elementary school.

Teachers for secondary schools, normal schools and the general education courses of the vocational schools receive training in the Faculties of Education of twelve public or private universities. About 40% of the secondary school teachers have received such training. Normal school graduates and holders of the Bachillerato may be admitted to university programs in education. Upon completion of the four-year course of study the degree of Licenciado is awarded.

4. Quality of Instruction

Recent observers of the Colombian educational scene maintain that although there are serious defects in both primary and university education, the most immediate problems are in the colegios--the secondary schools. A serious educational gap exists between the preparation of high school graduates and what is required of them in the universities. Some of the secondary schools are excellent, especially the wealthier private institutions and the official schools located in large cities.

The majority, however, are poorly equipped and poorly staffed and working with educational methods that are out of date.

The government has been taking steps to improve the situation by providing career and professional incentives for teachers to continue their education. Standards for salaries, promotion, and tenure are being established. Some universities and institutes are offering special short courses for teachers. The Peace Corps has been assisting in the teacher-training programs of secondary school teachers. The Instituto Liguistico Colombo-Americano (ILCA) was established in 1962 with the help of the U.S. Department of State for the purpose of improving the teaching of English in middle-level schools. Although the study of English is required in all six years of the colegio, for the most part it has been inadequately or poorly taught and taught by teachers with little knowledge of English. The Peace Corps is giving particular attention to the improvement of science and mathematics teaching in secondary schools.

A new concept in secondary level education is to be inaugurated in June of 1970. The plan, referred to as INEM (Institutos Nacionales de Educacion Media), calls for the construction of twenty "comprehensive" high schools. These schools will be constructed in twenty of the twenty-one departmental capitals in high-density population areas. The first two years will be basic education common to everyone and will include extra-academic activities like woodshop, drawing, electronics, etc. At the third-year level the student must decide upon a vocational major: agriculture, commercial, industrial, or pre-university. Upon entering the fifth year the student must decide whether to continue in the channel previously selected or to switch to one of the other offerings for the final two years. Students finishing the six-year program, regardless of field of study, will be eligible for university admission. All vocational tracks, then, will include pre-university studies.

C. Higher Education

There are three main groupings of education after the high school level: 1) post-secondary, but not university, which accepts students who have completed

the four-year basic cycle of secondary school, and which offers courses in intermediate level or sub-professional specializations; 2) university, which requires the Bachillerato for admission and which offers courses in professional and some sub-professional fields of specialization; 3) post-university, or post-graduate, which requires a university degree for admission and which offers advanced-level study in only a few disciplines.

In 1966, the year for which the most recent complete figures are available, a total of 52,117 students were engaged in higher education. Of this number, 1,838 (3.5%) were enrolled in sub-professional programs, 49,930 (95.8%) were enrolled in regular academic university programs, and 349 (0.7%) were taking post-graduate study. Almost 78% of all students in higher education were men. The public universities accommodated 54% of all students. Rank ordered by number of students enrolled, the five most popular fields of study are engineering, health sciences (including medicine and nursing), administration and economics, law, education. Since 1961 student enrollment has grown at the rate of 13% annually.

Over the years, the retention rate in the universities has been dramatically low. Varying from school to school, the current rate of attrition is estimated to be between 50% and 80%. Some writers have characterized this as a philosophy of waste--the success or quality of the institution being measured in terms of student failure rather than student success.

1. Schools of Higher Learning

A large number of post-secondary institutions, some of which are called universities and some of which are recognized by the Colombian Association of Universities, offer programs and grant degrees in specific fields. These institutions are commonly referred to as "schools of higher learning", and are authorized to operate by the Ministry of Education. They are post-secondary in that either the first cycle (four years) of the secondary school or the Bachillerato (six years) is a requirement for admission. While some of these schools of higher learning offer regular university

degrees, the completion of most programs lead to the title of "Experto", "Perito" or "Tecnico". Courses of study are from one to four years in length.

2. Universities

Twenty-five institutions of higher education are members of and authorized by the Colombian Association of Universities to grant degrees. Fourteen are public and eleven are private. They are listed below.

Colegio Mayor de Nuestra Senor del Rosario, Bogota
Fundacion Universidad de America, Bogota
Fundacion Universidad de Bogota "Jorgo Tadeo Lozano", Bogota
Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, Bogota
Universidad de Antioquia, Medellin
Universidad de Caldas
Universidad de Cartagena
Universidad de los Andes, Bogota
Universidad de Medellin
Universidad de Narion, Pasto
Universidad del Atlantico, Barranquilla
Universidad del Cauca, Popayan
Universidad del Tolima, Ibague
Universidad del Valle, Cali
Universidad Distrital de Bogota "Francisco Jose de Caldas", Bogota
Universidad Externado de Colombia, Bogota
Universidad Industrial de Santander, Bucaramanga
Universidad "La Gran Colombia", Bogota
Universidad Libre de Colombia, Bogota
Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogota
Universidad Pontificia Bolivariana, Medellin
Universidad Pedagogica y Technologica de Colombia, Tunja
Universidad Pedagogica Nacional, Bogota
Universidad Santiago de Cali, Cali
Universidad Technologica de Pereira, Pereira

The common university degree, after four or five years of study is the Licenciado. Also commonly offered are titles (also considered to be degrees) such as Economista, Architecto, Geologo, Ingeniero, Odotontologo, Quimico, and the like. Post-graduate study usually results in the degree of Magister and occasionally the Doctor.

Among the twenty-five universities, the following six are considered by Colombian educators to be generally superior: Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, Universidad de Antioguia, Universidad de Los Andes, Universidad del Valle, Universidad Industrial de Santander, and Universidad Nacional de Colombia.

For admission to the universities applicants must be at least sixteen years of age, hold the Bachillerato or a recognized equivalent (or have completed the course in a secondary level teacher-training school) and must, for most institutions, take aptitude and achievement tests.

The National Testing Service of the Colombian Association of Universities has constructed a series of aptitude and achievement tests, using the College Entrance Examination Board series as a model. Fourteen universities require these tests. A few universities use the Spanish version of the SAT (Prueba de Aptitud Academica). Four universities (Universidad de Antioquia, Universidad del Valle, Universidad de Los Andes, Universidad Industrial de Santander, known as the "unit group") have their own series of tests. It is anticipated that in the near future all Colombian universities will use the standardized tests of the National Testing Service.

When considering applicants for admission, Colombian universities rarely, if ever, consider secondary school records or letters of recommendation*.

In the official public universities, student fees are scaled according to parents' income and ability to pay. In general, tuition and fees in the public institutions are considerably less than in the private schools.

Traditionally, university education was almost exclusively professional preparation. Almost no time was devoted to liberal arts courses during the early years of most university programs, and there was virtually no place for elective subjects later. Since the mid-1950's, however, the universities have broadened their curricula. Basic courses in humanities, social sciences and general science are frequently offered during the first year (referred to as the Ano Basico) and in some institutions

* The one important exception is Javeriana. This institution used the PAA and evaluates the high school record of applicants from certain schools. Importance is given to the transcript in accordance with the following descending order of types of high schools: 1) private schools in Bogota and the other capital cities; 2) official public high schools in the capital cities; 3) private, church-related schools receiving public funds. Like the other institutions of higher education, Javeriana does not "trust" letters of recommendation.

during the second year as well. Students enter fields of specialization during the second or third year.

Programs of Study and Degrees Offered

Colombian universities offer a vast range of programs with almost as many types of diplomas. The listing which follows is not an all-inclusive one and the number of years to secure a degree may vary from one institution to another, but is indicative of the traditional system: five years in industrial administration--Doctor degree (not to be confused with a Ph.D.); four years in educational administration--Licenciado; five years in agriculture--Ingeniero Agronomo; five or six years in architecture--Architecto; five years in law--Abogado; four years in pharmacology--Quimico Farmaceutico; five years in engineering--Ingeniero; six or seven years in medicine--Doctor en Medicina et Cirugia (also called Medico); five years in dentistry--Doctor or Odontologo; five years in mathematics--Licenciado; three years in statistics--Estadistico; four years of courses in education, social sciences, philology and languages, physical education, etc.--Licenciado.

As in the case in the secondary level Bachillerato program, the university student is subjected to many hours of class where the emphasis is upon theory and memorization of information. Information giving, rather than "learning", is partially the result of deficient libraries and reading materials. Consequently, the student's attitude inclines toward passive reception rather than creative or critical thinking. A program of study is often regarded as an obstacle course, the successful completion of which will lead to graduation, social status, and economic security.

Prior to 1960, only very limited importance was attached to research activities in the universities. This situation is changing and research work is now considered an important part of the educational process, at least by the more progressive institutions. A National Institute of Research Services has been founded to promote and coordinate university research programs.

Although routinely not enforced, students are expected to attend a minimum of

80% of the lectures and 90% of the practical classes. Failure to satisfy these requirements could mean refusal of permission to take examinations or the outright exclusion from the course.

The Faculty

Universities traditionally have relied on a staff of part-time instructors, consisting of professional men who devote a few hours each week to teaching (often referred to as "taxi professors"). Some of these part-time people have high professional standing, but the majority lack the qualifications for university teaching. Their academic training usually does not go beyond the Licenciado or professional degree obtained after four or five years of university study. Latin American professors, in the main, are of the Napoleonic type, professionals who leave their offices briefly and speak in a superficial way on matters they are not concerned with in a scientific or intellectual sense. This phenomenon, of course, has a negative effect on student--teacher relations, which in many instances are nonexistent. Even many deans and department heads are part-time persons. Most universities recognize that the lack of a full-time, dedicated teaching staff is a serious hindrance and have made considerable efforts to increase the percentage of full-time faculty. Some institutions, especially del Valle, Antioquia, Industrial de Santander and Los Andes, have been rather successful. In 1968, 53% of the faculty in all institutions of higher education were full time.

The Colombian Association of Universities

This organization was established by a group of university rectors in 1957. Among its functions and purposes are the following: to assist the government in the supervision and coordination of education at the higher levels; to organize workshops and seminars in the sciences and arts and to foster publications; to coordinate and promote post-graduate level study; to distribute, in part, the national budget allocated to the universities; to develop policies, procedures and examinations for university admissions; to assist the universities in planning and development; and

to establish minimum standards and to serve as an accrediting agency. The National University Fund predated the Association, but its functions were largely integrated with those of the Association in 1958, and both now act in concert.

ICETEX (The Colombian Institute for Advanced Training Abroad)

This quasi-governmental and largely autonomous agency provides loans for students to study at home and abroad and screens and recommends candidates for aid from other sources. For students approved for graduate study in the United States, ICETEX exchanges pesos for dollars at the official rate thereby reducing total study costs. ICETEX loans carry low interest rates and a liberal repayment policy. This organization was instrumental in helping to establish similar entities in Panama, the Dominican Republic, Venezuela, and Peru.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

A. DOCUMENTATION

1. Undergraduate Admission

   Complete records of the student's academic performance in each year of the six-year secondary program (first and second cycle) with evidence of conferral of the Bachillerato diploma should be submitted. If the applicant has studied in an institution of higher learning, complete records of all post-secondary studies completed or in progress should accompany the secondary school credentials.

2. Graduate Admission

   Graduate applicants should present official records from each institution attended following completion of secondary school. Such records should show all course work undertaken, regardless of whether the program was completed for credit or was related to the proposed field of study. The date of formal conferral of the degree or professional title, as designated by the institution itself, must be substantiated by a certified copy of the diploma or by a definitive

statement from the Colombian university giving date of award of the degree (the Licenciado, Doctor, or others) or the professional title (Ingeniero, Economista, Quimico, etc.). U.S. graduate schools may also wish to require a certified copy of the Bachillerato diploma and a transcript of the applicant's secondary school grades, at least in the second cycle.

3. Characteristics of Academic Records

Year by year (or semester by semester) lists of courses, with marks obtained in each, are issued by all institutions of secondary and higher education. Marks are recorded as whole numbers on a scale of 0-5 with decimal subdivisions. Hours per week devoted to each subject, sometimes divided into hours of theoretical and practical (laboratory or field) work are commonly indicated. Many Colombian universities report failing grades (below 3.0) on the transcript. Admissions officers are advised to check the transcript for failing marks and to note whether a record of taking a re-examination in the failed subject appears. The re-examination, or second attempt, is commonly referred to as a "Habilitacion". In some records the failure may merely be listed without special identification in a later term or year with the mark obtained on repetition. Most Colombian schools do not include the first failing mark in their determination of the student's average.

In some faculties of the Pontificia Universidad Catolica Javeriana, and in a few other institutions, students are required to take comprehensive examinations in their major subject after completion of the required course work as a basis for conferral of the Licenciado or Doctor degree. A report of such examinations, designated as "Examenes preparatorios" will appear on the transcript or as attachment thereto.

Some universities (e.g., Universidad de Los Andes, Universidad

de Antioquia) enter on their transcripts the yearly average grade (Promedio) and the overall average (Promedio General de Calificaciones) upon completion of the total degree program.

B. APTITUDE AND ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Admissions officers may wish to ascertain whether their undergraduate applicants from Colombia, either freshmen or advanced standing, have taken the aptitude and achievement tests which are now required for admission by most Colombian universities and, if such tests have been taken, to request that a report of the student's scores and appropriate normative data be forwarded to the U.S. institution. Scores may be available for some applicants on tests designed by the National Testing Service (Servicio Nacional de Pruebas), a division of the Colombian Association of Universities (Asociacion Colombiana de Universidades, Apartado Aereo 6319, Bogota, D.E., Colombia). Fourteen universities now require the tests of the National Testing Service as part of their selection procedure. Alternatively, some Colombian students may have taken the aptitude and achievement tests given as an entrance requirement by four universities known as the "unit group" (Antioquia, del Valle, Andes, Industrial University of Santander).

If the applicant has not taken any of these tests the U.S. admissions officer may request him to take the tests designed and administered by the National Testing Service which is willing to provide the U.S. institution with the scores and normative data.

C. SUGGESTIONS FOR EVALUATING THE QUALITY OF COLOMBIAN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Admissions officers might endeavor to obtain information about the particular institution attended by the applicant, such information to include the selectivity of its admissions policies, the number of full-time teaching faculty, its history of support, if any, by U.S. foundations and of

cooperative programs with U.S. or European academic institutions, and its plans for reorganization and expansion of the academic program and physical plant. The most readily available item of information is its status as an accredited or non-accredited institution, as indicated by membership in the Colombian Association of Universities.

D. SUGGESTIONS FOR EVALUATING QUALITY OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

The grading scale used in Colombian secondary schools and universities range from 0-5, with 3.0 the minimum passing mark for each subject. Grades typically are reported as whole numbers with their decimal subdivisions in tenths or hundredths. In some faculties of the Javeriana University a percentage scale (0-100) is used, with or without corresponding descriptive terms indicating quality (sobresaliente--excellent, notable--very good, bueno--good, aprobado--passed, or reprobado--failed). Occasionally, transcripts show both 0-5 marks and corresponding percentage marks (e.g., 3.5, 70; 4.3, 86).

In some institutions, the grade in a given course is based on a 60% weighting of the student's record in classroom tests and practical work and a 40% weighting of the final examination result. This basis for determination of grades is being advocated as a general policy for Colombian universities as a means of improving consistency of standards in evaluating student performance. It is customary to permit students who fail one or two courses in a given year to take re-examinations in failed subjects, but in the event of three failures, the student must repeat the entire year.

In attempting to evaluate grades on the standard 0-5 Colombian grading scale, it should be kept in mind that the grade of 5 (or 100), representing the maximum mark obtainable, is seldom given as a course grade and that whereas in the United States students on rare occasion may attain an A average, an average of 5.0 could never be found in Colombian records.

Furthermore, in attempting to suggest equivalencies of Colombian marks in the passing range of 3.0 - 5.0 to the A, B, C, D which are the most commonly used passing grades in U.S. universities, we must question whether the Colombian grading system does, in fact, make use of the concept represented by the American "D" grade which, although used as the minimum passing grade for a subject is less than "satisfactory" since it is below the general average of "C" required by most U.S. institutions for graduation. In Colombian universities 3.0 is the lowest passing grade for course work and, in general, is also the average required for graduation.

The table of equivalencies presented below is that proposed by the Colombian consultant to the workshop and it will be noted that it assigns "D" equivalency to a very narrow range of Colombian marks.

COLOMBIAN GRADES	SUGGESTED U.S. EQUIVALENCIES
5.0 - 4.4	A
4.3 - 3.8	B
3.7 - 3.3	C
3.2 - 3.0	D
less than 3.0	F

The U.S. resource person for Colombia, representing a highly selective institution, suggests the following table of equivalencies:

COLOMBIAN GRADES	SUGGESTED U.S. EQUIVALENCIES
5.0 - 4.6	A
4.5 - 4.0	B
3.9 - 3.4	C
3.3 - 3.0	D
less than 3.0	F

U.S. admissions officers are advised to use these scales merely as a rough guide to the interpretation of an applicant's overall Colombian grade average at either the secondary or university level. They should not be used as an authoritative basis for converting each separate Colombian course grade into a U.S. letter grade and calculating from this a grade-point average.

If a Colombian institution provides an explanatory or advisory statement regarding the quality of academic performance to be inferred from a student's average marks in his studies or presents its own interpretive scale of values between 3.0 and 5.0, this information should be taken into consideration but used with caution. In the United States, different institutions and different schools or departments within the same institution often vary considerably in their grading policies and practices especially in respect to assignment of grades at the extremes of the scale. A similar situation exists in Colombia. A case in point is the Faculty of Mines of the branch of the National University located in Medellin. This faculty maintains that in its program in geology and petroleum, a grade average of 4.0 has been obtained by only a few students throughout the history of the school and that its best students will graduate with averages of 3.5 or 3.6. The entire Medellin division of the National University has a reputation for grading "hard" and its registrar identifies the range of "excellent" grades, corresponding to A in the United States, as 4.0 to 5.0.

In assessing the academic records of Colombian applicants one should look for evidence of consistency of performance and of improvement throughout the student's secondary or university career. It may be helpful to determine the average for each year, as well as the applicant's total grade average, on the Colombian scale.

If the university transcript indicates that the student was requested to undertake additional projects or "examenes preparatorios" at the conclusion of his regular course of study for the specific purpose of raising his general average, this fact may be noteworthy.

It should be noted that the Applicant Information Service of the Institute of International Education is available in Colombia. The higher education section of the Pan American Union, Washington, D.C., is willing to

assist U.S. admissions officers in the evaluation of Colombian credentials and will render upon request an opinion regarding academic placement. In addition, ICETEX (Apartado Aereo No. 5735, Bogota, D.E., Colombia) has agreed to evaluate credentials and provide information relative to the applicant's academic institution.

E. PLACEMENT

1. Freshman Standing

To be eligible for consideration as a freshman in a U.S. institution, the Colombian applicant should hold the Bachillerato awarded upon completion of the full six-year secondary program. Although the Bachillerato represents only eleven years of elementary and secondary education, this is the complete program (university preparatory) in Colombia and should be considered as the equivalent of the U.S. high school diploma.

The diploma of Maestro Normalista may, as it admits to Faculties of Philosophy and Letters as well as to Faculties of Education in Colombian universities, be considered as a basis for freshman standing, if the total secondary program (the four-year cycle plus two years of teacher training) is evaluated by the U.S. institution as providing adequate preparation. Students in the teacher-training program may also take the general academic program and qualify for both the Maestro Normalista and Bachillerato degrees.

The Bachillerato Tecnico diploma in various industrial fields and the corresponding qualification in commerce or in agriculture, all of which require a minimum of six years of secondary education (in some instances seven years) permits students with this training to enter appropriate specific fields of study in Colombian universities. However, these specialized, vocationally oriented, secondary programs should be carefully evaluated before freshman standing is offered. It

might be desirable to validate such an applicant's qualifications by requiring him to submit SAT or other aptitude test scores. Colombian secondary programs of this type may provide suitable preparation for admission to first-year college programs in technical or other specialized colleges or institutes.

2. Admission with Advanced Standing

None of the present secondary level programs in Colombia appear to justify advanced standing in U.S. universities. Advanced standing may be granted for subjects completed in Colombian universities on a course by course basis. Some of the degree or diploma programs offered by Colombian universities, although based on the Bachillerato, are of too short duration to give eligibility for graduate admission, but may qualify the student for admission as an undergraduate with advanced standing. U.S. colleges may wish to consider Colombian students who have completed a three-year university program leading to a professional title such as the title of "Estadistico" (statistician) for admission in special status which will allow him to complete the instutution's undergraduate requirements in his major field and then, if he is found to be qualified, to promote him into graduate level study leading to a Master's degree.

3. Graduate Standing

To be eligible for graduate admission, the Colombian student should hold a degree or title which requires, as a minimum, four or five years of full-time academic work. The content of the applicant's curriculum should provide adequate and appropriate preparation for his proposed field of graduate study; his academic record should give evidence of high scholarship and his competence in English should be adequate for understanding academic work in his major field.

Although the Licenciado degree and the professional titles granted by Colombian universities typically require the four or five years of study recommended as a basis for graduate standing, degree programs of shorter duration are offered in some fields by some institutions. The graduate admissions officer will, therefore, need to guard against the assumption that all first degrees conferred by Colombian institutions merit recognition as the equivalent of our Bachelor's degree and should check carefully on the length of program required to qualify for a given degree by the Colombian institution. Furthermore, Colombian institutions may offer pre-university or sub-professional programs which do not require the Bachillerato as a basis for admission but which lead to diplomas or professional qualifications given under university auspices.

The Colombian degree of Doctor which is awarded by some institutions mainly in the faculties of theology, economic science or law and political science, is usually a first degree requiring four or five years of study, and like the Licenciado, should be considered as approximately equivalent to the U.S. Bachelor's degree.

Advanced graduate, or post-graduate degree programs, are not widely available in Colombia. As a relatively new development, however, some schools are now offering studies beyond the first degree or title which leads to the degree of Magister. The degree of Doctor is occasionally granted by some institutions as an advanced degree, usually following the Licenciado or professional title. It may require an additional year of study and/or the preparation and presentation of a thesis. This post-graduate Doctor's degree, therefore, is not in any sense comparable to the U.S. Ph.D.

The Magister, or the post-graduate Doctor qualification, should be regarded as higher degrees which offer a basis for the possible award of

credit at the graduate level by the U.S. graduate school. Whether the level of academic preparation represented by these advanced degrees is, in fact, equivalent to our Master's degree should be determined on an individual basis.

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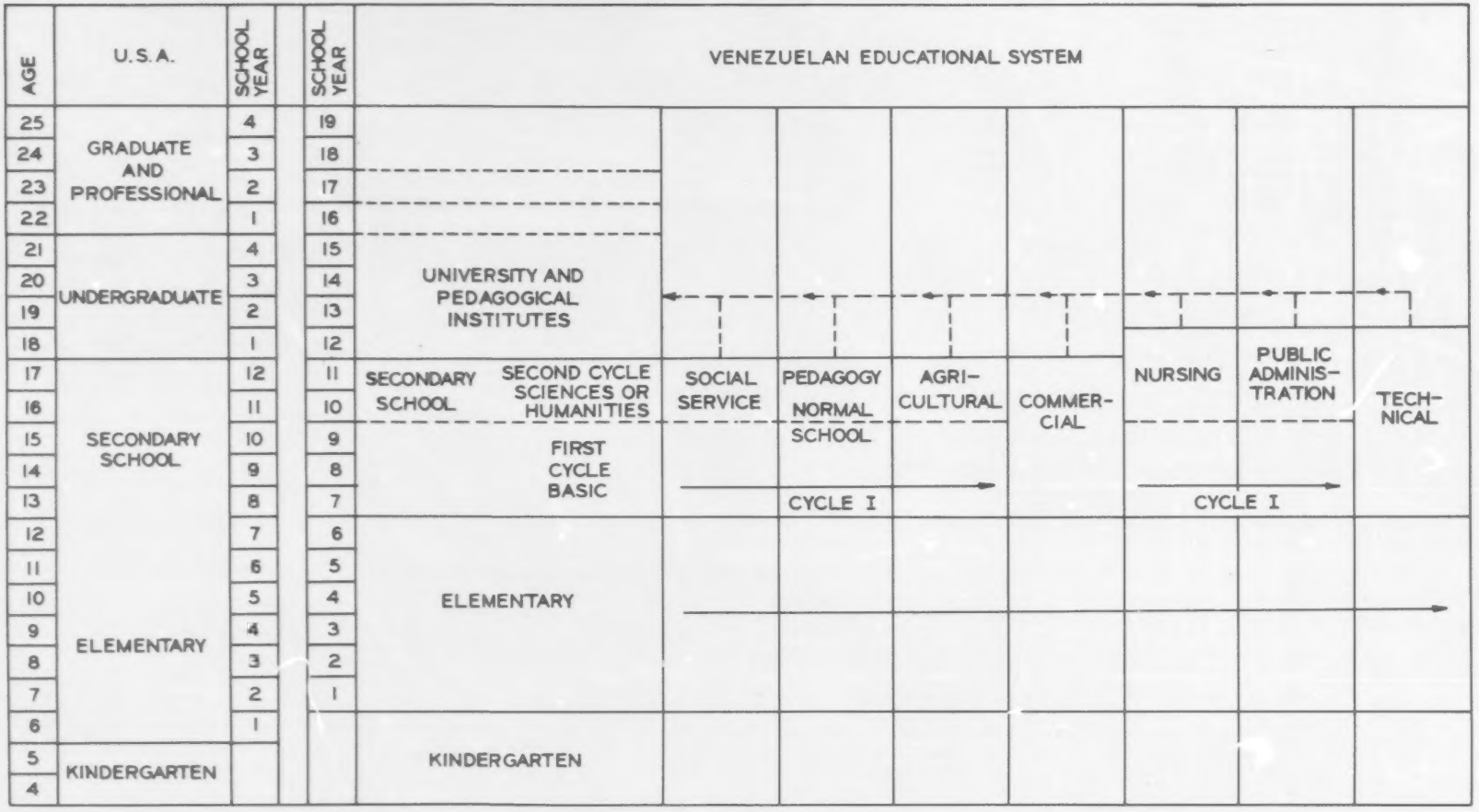
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UNIVERSITY AND PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTES
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SECOND CYCLE SCIENCES OR HUMANITIES
FIRST CYCLE BASIC
ELEMENTARY
KINDERGARTEN
SOCIAL SERVICE
PEDAGOGY NORMAL SCHOOL
CYCLE I
AGRI-CULTURAL
COMMER-CIAL
NURSING
PUBLIC ADMINIS-TRATION
CYCLE I
TECH-NICAL

VENEZUELA

by Sanford Jameson

I. BACKGROUND

Formal education began in Venezuela in 1673 with the establishment of Seminario de Santa Rosa in Caracas. In the 1720's the institution was elevated to a royal university and today is Central University in Caracas. In 1856 separation between church and state was achieved and by 1870 free compulsory primary education was established. Progress was slow until 1935 when the government conducted a major reorganization of the educational system. Since 1958 with the overthrow of the dictator and the establishment of democratic government, significant progress has been made in education in Venezuela. In 1958 only about 55% of the school-age children were in schools. Today approximately 90% of Venezuelan children of school entrance age enroll in primary schools. Remarkable strides have been made in the past ten years with a concerted effort on the part of the government to improve education at all levels. Approximately 18% of the national budget is devoted to education including both facilities and instruction. Traditionally, education was a privilege and available only to the socially and economically elite. In recent years, this philosophy has been changing toward one of mass education. Although the 1870 educational law established free public education, there is at the present time an illiteracy rate of approximately 26% of those over 18 years of age. However since 47% of the population is under 18 years of age, and since a relatively high percentage of this group are in school, the illiteracy rate in the years to come should decline considerably. There is a growing belief among the Venezuelan people in the value of education as a key to individual and national progress.

II. CURRENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Pre-school education in Venezuela is limited to only a small percent of the population. Traditionally there has not been much interest in this type of program; however, this attitude seems to be changing and there is good reason to believe that

increasing emphasis will be placed on pre-school programs.

Although free compulsory education has been a part of the educational law in Venezuela for some time, there are not enough schools to accommodate all of the children in the elementary school-age group nor has it been possible to enforce the compulsory attendance law. Although 7 years of age is the legal age to start elementary school, many students begin their formal schooling when older, and the average starting age is 9 years. Children in rural areas, in many cases, begin their formal education much later than children in the cities. The largest drop-out rate for elementary school is in the first year. The curriculum in the elementary school program consists largely of language, arithmetic, social studies, natural sciences, civics and hygiene. Upon the completion of the six-year elementary program, the student is issued a Certificate of Elementary Education (Certificado de Educacion Primaria). Although the elementary school curriculum for both public and private schools is under the control of the Ministry of Education, there is a wide disparity in the quality of education between the urban schools and rural schools. Urban education by and large is much superior to the education offered in the rural areas.

The curriculum at the secondary school level is also prescribed by the Ministry of Education and is adhered to strictly in both public and private schools. Admission to secondary schools requires the student to have his Certificate of Elementary Education. Secondary education in Venezuela is composed of academic or college preparatory programs, normal schools, and a variety of vocational educational programs, as indicated in the chart of the Venezuelan education system.

Under a proposed new educational law now in the Venezuelan Congress, all students will take the same program in the first cycle of their secondary education regardless of whether they intend to pursue an academic or vocational program.

The public academic high schools are called Liceos and private schools are called Colegios, Institutos or Academias. The conventional route to the university is through the academic high school program leading to a Bachillerato degree. The

program of study is divided into two cycles. The first cycle of three years involves basic courses common to all students. The second cycle of two years is divided into a humanities or sciences program. Thus the student with a Bachillerato in humanities has completed the five-year academic program with a major in humanities and the student with a Bachillerato in science has completed the five-year program with a major in sciences. (See Table 1).

Normal, commercial and technical schools offer different programs and degrees. Many of these programs require the basic cycle that is required in the academic program except in the second cycle the student specializes in a particular vocational area. The nursing, public administration and technical programs involve a total of six years whereas the other vocational programs are of a five-year duration. Historically the normal school curriculum involved only four years; however, in recent years most of the students are taking the basic cycle of three years and a pedagogical program of two years. Students who have completed the five or six-year provocational program are considered to be prepared for higher education. Note Table 2 indicating high school degrees which are offered in the various secondary school programs, and the specific faculties or schools of the University or Pedagogical Institutes open to specific degree holders. To gain admission to a faculty other than those specified in Table 2 students must make up essential courses missed at the secondary level.

Venezuelan higher education can be divided into several categories as indicated on Table 3. The autonomous universities are independent of government control, although they are supported by public funds. The National Council of Universities, composed of the rectors of the autonomous universities, the Minister of Education, a dean and a student representative from each university, handles the apportionment of funds among universities and sets common standards and requirements for them. At the university level, administration is in the hands of the university officials who are elected by the professors and a proportion of students and

TABLE 1

CURRICULUM OF THE ACADEMIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

FIRST CYCLE	WEEKLY HOURS		
Subjects: Years:	1st	2nd	3rd
Spanish and Literature	5	5	4
Mathematics	4	4	3
Geography and History	4	6	6
Biological Sciences	6	6	6
Chemistry	-	-	7
Physics	-	-	8
English	4	3	3
Art Education	-	3	2
Workshop for Boys	-	2	-
Workshop for Girls	-	2	-
Child Care (optional for boys)	-	-	2
Social, Moral and Civic Formation	1	2	-
Physical Education	1	1	1

SECOND CYCLE: SCIENCE	WEEKLY HOURS	
Subjects: Years:	1st	2nd
Physics	7	7
Chemistry	7	7
Biology	7	7
Minerology and Geology	-	5
Mathematics	4	4
Philosophy	3	-
English or French	3	3
Spanish and Literature	2	2
Drafting	2	-
Economic Geography of Venezuela	3	-
SECOND CYCLE: HUMANITIES		
Spanish and Literature	5	5
Latin	3	-
Latin and Greek	-	4
Documentary and Critical History of Venezuela	4	4
French	5	3
Philosophy	4	4
Social Sciences	3	-
Mathematics	2	2

Source: "Programa Basico de Educacion Secondaria", Ministry of Education, Venezuela.

TABLE 2

VENEZUELAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS:

Degrees Granted and Subsequent Access to Higher Education

SECONDARY SCHOOLS	SECONDARY SCHOOL DEGREES	ADMISSIBLE TO THE FOLLOWING SCHOOLS OR FACULTIES
ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOLS (LICEOS)	BACHILLER EN HUMANIDADES	HUMANITIES, LAW AND PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE
ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOLS (LICEOS)	BACHILLER EN CIENCIAS	ALL FACULTIES (EXCEPT LAW) AND PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE
AGRICULTURAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS (ESCUELAS TECNICAS DE AGRICULTURA)	BACHILLER EN CIENCIAS -- MENCION EN CIENCIAS AGROPECUARIAS (TECNICO AGROPECUARIO, prior to 1964)	AGRONOMY, FORESTRY, VETERINARY MEDICINE
INDUSTRIAL TECHNICAL SCHOOLS (ESCUELAS TECNICAS INDUSTRIALES)	TECNICO INDUSTRIAL	ENGINEERING
COMMERCIAL INSTITUTES (INSTITUTOS DE COMERCIO)	TECNICO MERCANTIL	BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
NORMAL SCHOOLS (ESCUELAS NORMALES)	MAESTRO DE EDUCACION PRIMARIA	EDUCATION AND PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE (ESCUELA DE SERVICIO SOCIAL)	BACHILLER EN HUMANIDADES-MENCION EN SERVICIO SOCIAL	HUMANITIES, SOCIAL SERVICE
NURSING SCHOOL (ESCUELA DE ENFERMERAS)	BACHILLER EN CIENCIAS-MENCION EN ENFERMERIA	MEDICINE, SCIENCE
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (ESCUELA DE ADMINISTRACION PUBLICA)	BACHILLER EN HUMANIDADES-MENCION EN ADMINISTRACION PUBLICA	HUMANITIES

TABLE 3

VENEZUELAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

AUTONOMOUS UNIVERSITIES	FOUNDING DATE
Universidad Central de Venezuela (closed 1912-1922)	1725
Universidad de Zulia (closed 1904-1946)	1891
Universidad de Los Andes	1810
Universidad de Carabobo (closed 1904-1958)	1892
EXPERIMENTAL UNIVERSITIES	
Universidad de Oriente	1958
Universidad de Lara	1966
Universidad de Caracas (to open soon)	
PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTES	
Instituto Pedagogico, Caracas	1936
Instituto Experimental, Barquisimeto	1962
POLYTECHNICAL INSTITUTES	
Instituto Politecnico de Barquisimeto	1962
PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES	
Universidad Catolica Andres Bello	1953
Universidad Santa Maria	1953

alumni. The University Council whose Chairman is the Rector, is made up of the Vice Rector, deans of the faculties, a delegate of the Ministry, and student and alumni representatives. Supreme authority rests not in the hands of the rectors or other top officials, but with the Council. The experimental universities are of a rather unique land-grant type, and have been established in recent years. The University of Caracas is still in the planning stage but is to be established in the next year or so. The two existing private institutions receive no public support. Public-supported institutions are tuition-free, and private institutions charge tuition. Catholic University enjoys a good reputation and Santa Maria is a proprietary non-sectarian institution. The Pedagogical Institute in Caracas is an established teacher-training institution which has trained most of the secondary school teachers. The new Pedagogical Institute in Barquisimeto in many respects is patterned on the Institute of Caracas. The Polytechnic Institute in Barquisimeto is a post-secondary program patterned after the British technical schools, and offers a practical engineering program which is four years, four months in duration, fourteen months of which is spent in practical training in industry. The experimental universities, pedagogical institutes, and the polytechnic institute are all under the direct fiscal and administrative control of the Ministry of Education. It is very difficult at the present time to arrive at an accurate total enrollment figure for the variety of higher educational institutions in Venezuela. The quality of the various faculties of these institutions seems to be neither a function of age or size of the institution. Admission to higher education in Venezuela is considered a right of the student at the Bachillerato level. However, an admission test is required by the faculties of engineering, medicine, law, and the pedagogical institutes. These programs exercise a good deal of selectivity. It is estimated that only approximately 20% of the students who start university work complete their degree program and less than 1% of the total age group graduates from a university. The pedagogical institute offers a four-year degree program. University programs

are four or five years in duration; Humanities, Sciences, Engineering and Law are five years. Medicine is six years and Doctor of Laws is seven. The degree of Doctor (except Doctor of Laws) usually denotes the completion of a four or five-year undergraduate course plus an approved thesis.

The following is a partial list of degrees[1] awarded by the faculties indicated:

Pedagogical Faculties - "Profesor de Educacion Media"

Engineering Faculties - "Ingeniero en (major field)"

Humanities Faculties - "Licenciado en (major field)"

Science Faculties - "Licenciado en (major field)"

Law Faculties

Lawyer - "Abogado"
Doctor of Laws - "Doctor en Derecho" (with thesis)

Medicine Faculties

Physician - "Medico - Cirujano" (without thesis)
Doctor of Medicine - "Doctor en Ciencias Medicas" (with thesis)

There is no graduate education in Venezuela comparable to graduate work in the United States; however, there are several master's degree level programs being planned and one two-year master's program in business and public administration now underway.

III. GRADING SYSTEM

The grading scale in Venezuela at both the secondary and the university level is based on a scale from 1 to 20 with 10 as the passing grade. In secondary school, a student's grades are assigned at the end of each year's work. The final grade represents 50% for classroom work and 50% for final examinations. A student must be re-examined for course work that he does not pass successfully for he cannot proceed to the next year's work until he has received a passing mark in each of the required subjects. Final examinations are prepared by a school examiner board and based on

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[1] For a more complete list of degrees offered see "A Guide to the Evaluation of Venezuelan Academic Credentials", or the current Catalogue of Central University, Venezuela (Catalogo de Cursos - Universidad Central de Venezuela).

material covered in the official curriculum. The examinations are administered in both public and private schools that follow the official curriculum established by the Ministry of Education. Examinations, oral, written, or practical are administered by the student's teachers along with two proctors appointed by the Ministry from outside the school. It is generally accepted that grades in the humanities tend to be higher than grades in the sciences in the second cycle of the secondary school curriculum. Conversions from the Venezuelan numerical grades to letter grades are provided in Table 4. This table has been developed by the North American Association and is a useful guideline. However, due to differences in teaching practices and grading standards, the admissions officer should avoid strict adherence to the table. The recommendations section provides advice regarding the use of this table.

University grades are given on the basis of semester examinations that comprise 40% of the final grade. The final examination for the course represents 60% of the final grade. Grades given for written reports (when required) are averaged with the grades for the semester examinations. As is true in the secondary school, the university student must make up examinations or courses not passed in order to proceed to the next year's courses. Although the grading scale is from 1 to 20, a limited portion of this scale is normally used by instructors. Grades of 19 or 20 are very rare. Passing grades range between 10 and 17. Table 4 also shows grade conversions for the universities and pedagogical institutes. It should be noted that different grading standards are used in the humanities as opposed to the sciences and engineering. The recommendations section indicates guidelines for the use of these conversions.

IV. SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS

The attrition or drop-out rate is a significant problem at all levels in the Venezuelan educational system. The most severe attrition comes at the beginning of each level of education: the first year in elementary school, the first cycle

TABLE 4

GRADE CONVERSION TABLE

Secondary School

	NUMERICAL GRADE	LETTER	VERBAL
HUMANITIES	19 - 20	A	Excellent
	16 - 17 - 18	B	Outstanding
	13 - 14 - 15	C	Satisfactory
	10 - 11 - 12	D	Passing
SCIENCES	18 - 19 - 20	A	Excellent
	15 - 16 - 17	B	Outstanding
	12 - 13 - 14	C	Satisfactory
	10 - 11	D	Passing

University or Pedagogical Institute

	NUMERICAL GRADE	LETTER	VERBAL
HUMANITIES	19 - 20	A	Excellent
	16 - 17 - 18	B	Outstanding
	13 - 14 - 15	C	Satisfactory
	10 - 11 - 12	D	Passing
	below 10	F	Failing
ENGINEERING AND SCIENCES	17 - 18 - 19 - 20	A	Excellent
	14 - 15 - 16	B	Outstanding
	12 - 13	C	Satisfactory
	10 - 11	D	Passing
	below 10	F	Failing

Source: "A Guide to the Evaluation of Venezuelan Academic Credentials"

in secondary school and the first year in the university. This attrition is not attributed totally to competition although this is certainly a major factor. A lack of orientation to formal education, family financial problems and poor instruction all contribute to the high drop-out rate. Great strides have been made in recent years to expand the educational system; however, it appears that attrition at all levels of education will continue to be a problem for some time to come. The method of instruction throughout the educational system in Venezuela, particularly at the elementary and secondary level, revolves around the dissemination of facts and a student is conditioned to rote learning at a very early age. This approach to education provides a significant problem for the student planning to study at either the undergraduate or graduate level in the United States. He must adjust to the concept of problem solving and synthesizing information, and some students find it quite difficult to adjust inasmuch as their previous educational experience emphasized rote learning.

Much of the interest in study in the United States comes at the graduate level because of a lack of formal graduate education in Venezuela. However many students are interested in undergraduate study in the United States and for a variety of reasons. The motivation of a student wishing to study in the States should be evaluated as thoroughly as possible. In some fields (for example, engineering) it is not desirable for the student to pursue undergraduate education outside the country. Professional societies (private organizations supported by law) have strict membership requirements for students who receive their degrees outside of the country. Even the most excellent students with degrees from other than Venezuelan universities are required to take additional examinations and in some cases additional course work to qualify for membership. A student cannot practice in his profession if he is not a member of a professional society.

The following quotation from THE GUIDE TO THE EVALUATION OF VENEZUELAN ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS sums up the problems in this area quite well: "It is the

experience of many educators, foundations and business organizations concerned with student affairs in Venezuela that the scholastic record of the candidate must be evaluated together with the motivation of the student, field of specialization, future career plans, knowledge of English and financial resources. Even the best Venezuelan students often find the first year of U.S. study very difficult. They must adjust to a new type of educational system which puts less emphasis on fact gathering and memory than the Venezuelan system and more on problem solving. Also they must become accustomed to discussion rather than lecture classes. However, the records show that the outstanding Venezuelan student who has chosen an appropriate field of specialization in relation to his previous training and who has had adequate preparation in English will usually achieve a similar rank in the U.S. university by his second year".

Because of the high standards of living in Venezuela, and because of good employment opportunities for university graduates, most Venezuelans return home immediately after completing their academic program abroad. It is estimated that over 95% of Venezuelan students return after their studies in the United States. Therefore, the so-called brain-drain problem does not exist with Venezuelan students.

V. QUALITY FACTORS

The Venezuelan economy and standard of living have expanded considerably in recent years. However, the country faces many difficult problems in the years ahead, many of which are exacerbated by the failure of the educational system to provide an adequate flow of well-trained people at all levels. Significant employment opportunities are not available for unskilled workers recently migrated to the urban centers which have quadrupled in the past generation. However, great advances in education have been made in recent years as indicated by the large increases in student enrollment, number of teachers, number of classrooms, and percentage of national budget devoted to education. Less than half of the elementary school teachers are normal school graduates; less than half of the secondary school teachers have a

degree from a pedagogical institute or the university. It is generally accepted that the good public schools are as good as the good private schools, and many of the public schools are better than many private schools. The number and quality of schools in the urban area far surpasses that in the small town and rural areas. However, there are some outstanding examples of excellent private and parochial schools that serve the children of well-to-do families. The control of the elementary and secondary school curricula by the Ministry of Education puts the school program in a "strait jacket", and makes it very difficult for innovation.

Higher education in Venezuela, when considered on the whole, is far from being capable of playing its proper role in the development of the country. Many autonomous universities, although they are free from government control, have considerable problems with internal politics, particularly in the election of the rector and deans. Students, on the other hand, are quite involved in national politics and through demonstrations and strikes occasionally disrupt a portion of the school year. These two factors tend to diminish considerably the time and energy available to spend on education. Although the other higher education institutions in Venezuela do not have some of the problems of the autonomous institutions, they are under the direct policy and fiscal control of the Ministry of Education. Some of these institutions, particularly the experimental institutions now in operation or in the planning stage, hold great hope for educational innovation and expansion of educational opportunity. Only time will tell whether these institutions can become viable and innovative within the political arena of government control. The pedagogical institutes, both the older, well-established one in Caracas which has some forward-looking departments and the newer Pedagogico in Barquisimeto with its industrial arts teacher-training program hold out the possibility of imaginative future development. Central University in Caracas is the oldest and by far the largest Venezuelan university. It strongly dominates the National Council of Universities and its faculty includes many people who excel in their fields, and many who teach only a few hours

a week while holding full-time jobs elsewhere. Salaries at the University are the lowest in the country since the University, due to its location in Caracas, can continue to draw excellent part-time people for reasons of prestige or duty. This leads to continued low salaries which do not permit many of the faculty to dedicate themselves exclusively to teaching.

VI. THE NORTH AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

The North American Association of Venezuela (NAA) is a unique organization in many respects. Its goal is to "improve relations and increase mutual respect and understanding between Venezuelans and Americans". One of the North American Association's activities of particular interest to educators in the United States is the Educational Committee which maintains a free educational guidance service for Venezuelan students who wish to study in the United States. This service, directed by Mrs. Isabel Gouverneur, is available to all students interested in studying in the United States, and U.S. colleges and universities are invited to use this service for their applicants from Venezuela at both the undergraduate and graduate level. The guidance service will evaluate credentials for U.S. admissions officers, prepare cost of living budgets for students wishing to study in the United States, make referrals to intensive English and orientation programs, and give information about scholarship opportunities. The guidance service maintains a library of college catalogs and is quite interested in receiving appropriate admission material from American institutions. A confidential interview report will be provided the American institution on request for its applicants from Venezuela. The applicants should be advised to make an appointment for an interview at the North American Association by contacting:

Servico de Orentacion Educacional
Asociacion Norteamericana de Venezuela
Apartado del Este 4835
Caracas, Venezuela

It is suggested that the American institution send a copy of its correspondence with the student to the North American Association. Mrs. Gouverneur would also appreciate

receiving a copy of the letter to the student when action is taken on his application. The North American Association holds membership in the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs. The NAA provides a valuable service both to prospective students and to the U.S. college or university and should be taken advantage of whenever possible.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Applicants for freshman admission at American colleges and universities should present the Bachillerato which indicates completion of the secondary education program. Graduates of the vocational and trade schools should not be considered for admission unless they have the Bachillerato and then only in the appropriate school, division, or department (i.e., commercial school graduates with the bachillerato to be considered for admission to a School of Business Administration, Commerce, etc.).

B. In considering the applicant it is not necessary that he present a copy of the Bachillerato certificate itself. The mere fact that the transcript shows he successfully completed the five-year program is proof enough that he has completed the equivalent to an American high school diploma.

C. It is recommended that high school graduates with overall averages of 16 or more in Humanities (Humanidades) and 15 or more in Sciences (Ciencias) may be considered for admission to American colleges and universities. The secondary school grade conversions on Table 4 are recommended for converting number grades to letter grades. It is hoped that American institutions with sufficient numbers of students from Venezuela can develop their own grade equivalency norms.

D. Students wishing to transfer as undergraduates from a Venezuelan university should be given credit for work completed on a subject-by-subject basis when that course work applies to the degree program in the American institution.

E. It is recommended that Table 4 be considered for use in grading scale conversions by U.S. institutions considering university level applicants. It should be noted that the grading in Engineering and Science is somewhat lower than in the Humanities fields.

F. In evaluating graduate applicants it is recommended that U.S. institutions give more weight to grades earned in the last three years of study than to the overall average.

G. It is recommended that applicants to U.S. institutions who are being considered seriously be referred to the North American Association in Caracas for an interview and a confidential evaluation report when feasible. The student must request such a report be sent to the U.S. institution. The U.S. institution must consider this report as confidential. For further information on the North American Association see page 91.

H. Since many scholarships from Venezuelan sources are dependent upon at least provisional admission to U.S. institutions and as part of the award provide English language training, it is recommended that provisional admission be granted for qualified applicants on the basis of the academic credentials before the English Proficiency Test is required.

I. It is recommended that official transcripts be accepted directly from the student since transcripts are not usually sent direct to another institution but rather given to the student for forwarding.

J. It is recommended that if letters of recommendation are required, letters from the applicant's university professors, preferably his thesis advisers, will be most useful. The institution should be explicit in type of information desired in the recommendation.

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APPENDIX

I. WORKSHOP STAFF

Director: Lee Wilcox, Director of Admissions, University of Wisconsin.

Administrative Director: Adolpho Fortier, Executive Director for Latin American Activities, College Entrance Examination Board.

Resource Persons:

Brazil: William Harrell, Specialist, Education in the Western Hemisphere, Comparative Education Branch, International Services and Research Staff, Institute of International Studies, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education.

Central America: Stirling Huntley, Director, Office of Admissions, Stanford University.

Colombia: Gonzalo Arboleda, Director of Regional Office, Instituto Colombiano de Especializacion Tecnica en el Exterior, Medellin, Colombia.

Robert Schuiteman, Associate Director of Admissions, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Venezuela: Sanford Jameson, International Activities, College Entrance Examination Board.

Roger Nava, Professor of Engineering, University of Zulia, Zulia, Venezuela.

II. WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

Floyd D. Boze, Dean of Admissions, Texas Technological College.

Brother F. Christopher, Director of Admissions, LaSalle College.

James L. Clegg, Assistant Director of Admissions, Georgia Institute of Technology.

Gene P. Dean, Director of Admissions, Pratt Institute.

Dyre Dyresen, Registrar and Director of Admissions, Andrews University.

Virginia N. Fisher, Assistant Director of Admissions, The Brooklyn Center, Long Island University.

Meredith Lee Gleklen, Foreign Student Adviser, Boston College.

G. James Haas, Assistant Director of Admissions, Indiana University.

John C. Hattendorf, Director of Admissions, University of Cincinnati.

Robert J. Hefling, Director of Graduate and International Student Admissions, University of Colorado.

Ralph M. Henderson, Associate Director of Admissions, University of Missouri at Kansas City.

Lucien W. Hope, Assistant Foreign Student Adviser, Iowa State University.

Harriet C. Johnson, Foreign Admissions Evaluator, University of Oregon.

Gloria D. Keating, Admissions Evaluator, University of New Mexico.

I. G. Lewis, Administrative Dean, Student Personnel Services, Pasadena City College.

Marcus McCoy, Assistant Director of Admissions--International Division, Southern Illinois University.

James Parrish, Associate Director of Admissions, University of Florida.

Mary Ann Scheirer, Foreign Student Admissions Counselor, University of Pittsburgh.

Lowell C. Sliger, Associate Director of Admissions, University of Tennessee.

Ruth Storey, Supervisor, Foreign Graduate Admissions, Stanford University.

James M. Thompson, Assistant Director of Admissions, Howard University.

John Walker, Acting Director of Foreign Faculty and Student Programs, State University of New York.

III. WORKSHOP OBSERVERS

James S. Frey, Director, Foreign Student Services, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

S. G. Gallo, Director of College Relations, Creole Petroleum Corporation.

E. M. Gerritz, Dean of Admissions and Records, Kansas State University.

Isabel M. Gouverneur, Director, Educational Guidance Service, North American Association of Venezuela.

Marvin Hurley, Academic Advisory Branch, Office of International Training, Agency for International Development, Department of State.

Roxaline Thomas, Foreign Student Admissions Officer, University of Arizona.